A HISTORY OF ENGLISH

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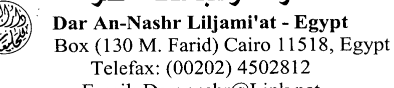
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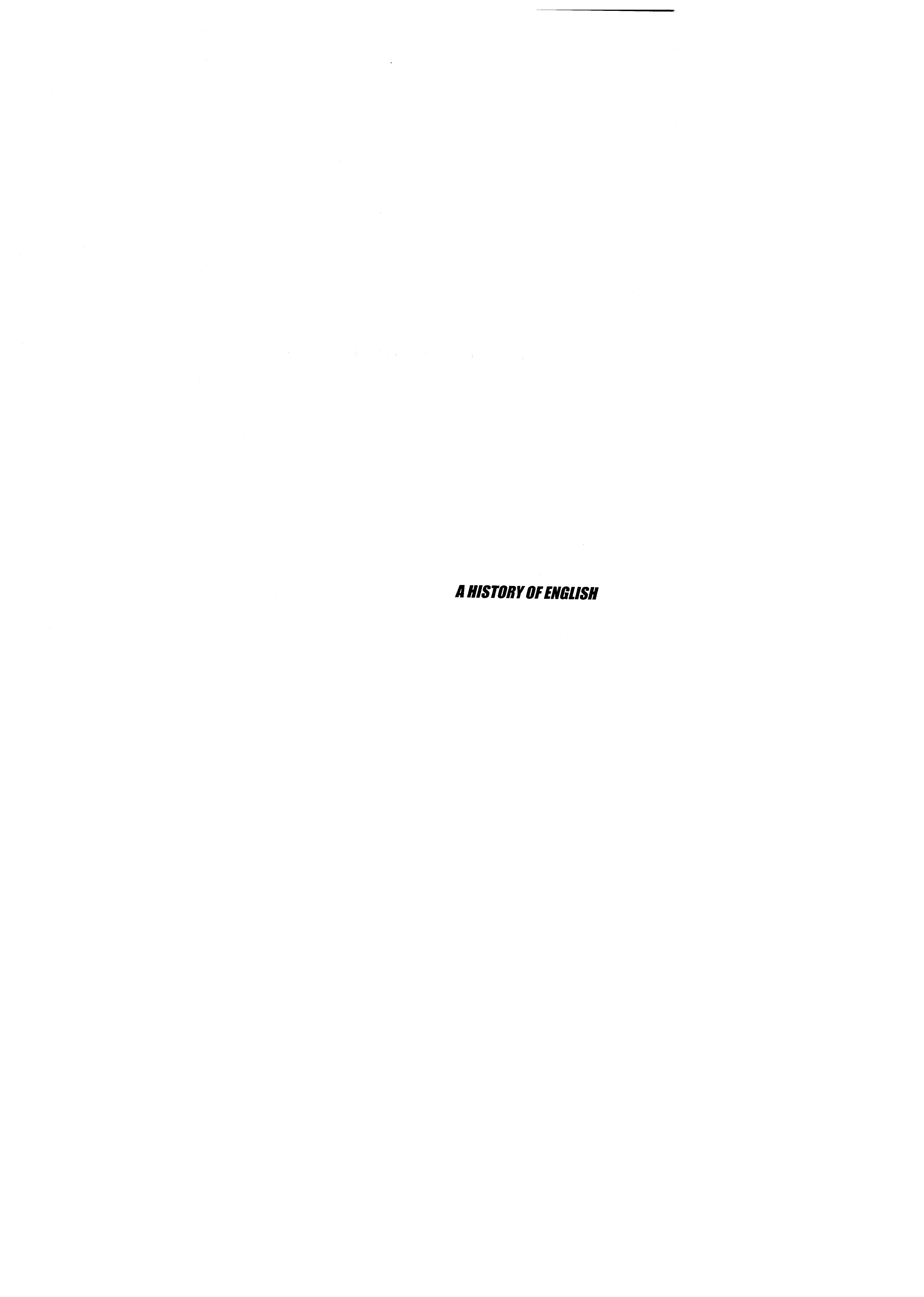
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A HISTORY OF ENGLISH

In The Name of ⊃Allâh, The All-Merciful, The Ever-Merciful

Contents

Hrothgar spoke, the lord of the Scyldings:

Deed of daring and dream of honor Bring you, friend Beowulf, knowing our need! Your father once fought the greatest of feuds, Laid Heatholaf low, of the wylfing line; And the folk of the Weders refused him shelter for fear of revenge. Then he fled to the South - Danes, The Honor - Scyldings beyond the sea.

4. Befowulf, II. 444-64, the manuscript, c. 1000. British Museum, MS Cotton Vitellius A. XV, fol. 140r.

Foreword

This book attempts to present the history of the English language in a compact and methodical manner. It begins with an introduction on Language and Linguistic Change and then surveys the main historical events and the various foreign and native factors which have influenced English and given it its present form.

This is followed by a description of the language in its four main stages traditionally known as Old, Middle, Early Modern and Modern English. The description is set in terms of the basic phonological, morphological, syntactical and lexical aspects of each stage.

The book ends with a brief treatment of American English showing the growth and development of English in the United States. It also discusses briefly the main differences between American English and British English.

It is to be hoped that, with the deficiencies expected in a work of this nature, the book will still help fill in a gap that has long been felt and serve the needs of Arab teachers and students of English in Universities, Teacher Colleges and Higher Institutes.

We are greatly indebted to the many historians of English and Linguists whose invaluable works have served as source of material included in this book. A bibliography of their works appears at the end.

Cairo // ARE.   M. M. Gh.

June 1963

Introduction

Language and Linguistics:

Language is the most effective means of communication that human beings possess. Human communication covers a wide range of content including ordinary conversations between individuals as well as philosophical discussions.

Modern students of language have so well defined their field that specialization has become necessary. Human communication is the usual scope of inquiry, and this excludes all types of communication that are not human. Animal "language", or the ways of communication to be found among birds or insects and other animals are left out for the study of scholars interested in these types of non-human species as a whole. Non-human "voices", whether they are audible to the human ear or fall short of stimulating the auditory nerves, are not languages in the present state of our linguistic knowledge.

Linguistics is a growing field of inquiry, but the study of language has always attracted the attention of scholars interested in social communication.

Three main streams of linguistic thought have contributed to our present-day knowledge about language:

1. The Indian tradition.

2. The Semitic school.

3. The Western contribution.

1. The Indian Tradition:

The Indian linguistic tradition grew around the sacred texts of the Brahmin religion. It was the task of a class of religious scholars to study these texts, to interpret them, and to indicate the proper way of reading or reciting them. This linguistic interest in the sacred texts extended to the actual spoken language of the upper - class and the rules for this language came to be called Sanskrit. The oldest Indian linguistic study that has come down to us is the grammar of Panini, about 300 BC Western scholars became interested in the study of Sanskrit in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries; and ever since that time the Indian linguistic tradition has influenced Western studies of language.

2. The Semitic School:

Like Indian linguistics, Semitic studies of language centered at first round the Qur⁻ân in Arabic. A hebrew grammar was also compiled by Jewish scholars in Muslim countries. Largely through Hebrew, this body of knowledge came to be known in Europe during the Renaissance. Some grammatical terms in some European languages are actually borrowed from Semitic; but none of the Semitic linguistic treatises came to exert a strong or a lasting influence on European scholarship. The names of such Arab linguists as Sîbawayh, Ibn Mâlik, and Ibn Jinnî have been very little known in the west.

3. The Western Contribution:

In the words of one of the most influential Western linguists, "The Indian grammar presented to European eyes, for the first

time, a complete and accurate description of a language, based not upon theory but upon observation"[1].

In 1786 William Jones established the relationship between Sanskrit, Latin, and Greek; and the nineteenth century in Europe saw the first systematic comparisons of the Indo-European languages.

Three main streams of linguistics in the West have existed side by side ever since the beginning of the seventeenth century.

(a) Historical Linguistics.

(b) Descriptive Linguistics.

(c) Theoretical Linguistics.

(a) The nineteenth century was largely a time of historical study. One of the significant achievements of this branch of linguistic studies has been the theory of linguistic change. The concept itself is a product of the Indo-European studies in the nineteenth century; and it was Hermann Paul's book "Principles of Linguistic History" that dealt with it in an extensive manner. Although historical linguists neglected descriptive studies at first, comparative studies outside of the Indo-European family of languages began to attract the interest and effort of some of the founders of the historical method.

(b) Descriptive linguistics is considered nowadays as the basis for all the other forms of linguistic studies. Historical studies of language are based upon the comparison of two or more linguistic descriptions, but for the purposes of describing a

(1) L.Bloomfield, Language, 1933.

language, no knowledge of the history of that language is necessary.

With this trend of descriptive study there also grew an interest in theoretical expositions about language. Two of the main figures that have contributed to this wealth of theorizing are DE SAUSSURE in Europe and SAPIR in the United States. De Saussure's thought has been behind much of what has been written about language, especially in Europe. Sapir's influence on linguistic scholarship in the United States has been far reaching, but he is more within the European tradition than the trend of "American Linguistics" as a whole. In fact, Sapir has more in common with De Saussure's and Croce's philosophy than with Bloomfield and the "American" tradition.

The method upon which the Bloomfieldian linguistic tradition in the United States has been built is the inductive method and one of the most eminent representatives of this is De Saussure.

Bloomfield's book, "Language" (1933), has been a standard work as an introduction to the field of linguistics in the United States. He sees that there is no need for theories or generalizations about language until an adequate number of languages has been analyzed and described. Even after this huge undertaking has been completed, theories and generalizations about language have to be inductive. "The only useful generalizations about language are inductive generalizations"(1).

It is still common practice to divide the analysis and description of a language into three distinct levels:

(1) L.Bloomfield, Language, p. 20.

1- Phonology (dealing with the functional sounds of language).

2- Morphology (treating word formation).

3- Syntax (describing the sentence structure).

In historical linguistics, however, it is necessary to add to the discussion of these three different levels a special treatment of the vocabulary and how it had developed through the different periods of the history of the language. This division will be adopted in the following chapters dealing with the development of English from early times until the modern period.

1. Phonology:

The unit of analysing the sound system of a language is the phoneme. A phoneme is the smallest unit of the sound system of the spoken language. A phoneme does not have meaning; but a phonemic difference is significant to the language, because such a difference always indicates a difference in meaning between a pair of words in the language. The two words sun and fun, for example, have the same vowel and the same final consonant. But there is a difference between the first consonant in each of the two words. This sound difference indicates in English the difference in meaning between the two words. That is why this difference is significant to the language; and that is what we call a phonemic difference.

2. Morphology:

The second basic unit of linguistic analysis and description is the morpheme. A morpheme has meaning in English; for example, the word book is one morpheme, but the word books

has two morphemes because the suffix-s indicating the plural has a meaning distinct from that of book.

3. Syntax:

In syntax we are interested in the **immediate constituents**, called ICs for short, of the phrase or sentence. The basic unit here is the **Taxeme**. In English, for example, the taxeme of order makes it neccessary that, in a declarative sentence, the subject comes before the verb.

"The boys ran" is an English sentence, where the subject "the boys" comes before the verb "ran". But:

Run the boy.

Is not an English sentence, because the verb "run" comes before the subject "the boy".

Writing Systems:

Two things have to be made clear at this point

1- The importance of writing.

2- Sound and spelling

1. The history of all languages has to be studied primarily through the writing system of each. In fact, the whole history of the human race would have been different - If it could ever exist - without the many writing systems in the world today. Old English, for example, would not have been studied today anywhere in the world with any degree of accuracy, had it not been for the written literature that has come down to us ever since the time of King Albert and after.

2. The spelling system of a language is usually a very rough approximation of the sound system of that language. The English system does not adequately represent the sounds of educated speech, whether in Britain or the United States. The letter a in the English system of spelling may represent the vowel [æ] in the sound system as in **man** [mæn], or the vowel [a] as in **father** [fadə (r)], or still [ey] as in **game** [geym]. The situation is a bit different in Arabic, where we usually have a more adequate representation of the sounds of the language in the spelling system, especially in the case of school handbooks.

Some of the reasons for the disparities between the writing systems and the phonological structures of such languages as English may be due to the fact that spelling is more conservative than speech. Spelling also perpetuates this conservative trend when a literary dialect is established; and this literary dialect would again act as a strongly conservative element in the development of language.

The English writing system of today actually goes back to the fifteenth century, and has little changed since that time. But spoken English both in Britain and the United States has changed in many ways in the last four centuries. The attempts on the part of those who write "rite" [rayt] and "thru" [θruw] instead of the more conventional **right** and **through** are an indication of the discrepancies between sound and spelling in English. Such attempts may result in changes in the writing system of English in the future, but the conservative influences of spelling and the literary dialect make such changes seem

unlikely at present. If such changes in spelling take place, the student of the history of English will be in a less favoured position, since the traces of old pronunciations preserved in the writing system will disappear from the graphic repertory of the language after they have been lost to the sound system of Modern English.

Linguistic Change:

Language may be defined as a human system of audible sounds. It is a human institution because we know of no other creatures that use this same medium of communication. It is a system since the combination of sounds that make up a language form one unified whole structure in such a way that any sound combination is meaningful only within the framework of that language as a whole.

In the study of the history of a language we cannot depend only on the sounds of the language for its description. Written records are one of our main sources in studying a language, because the spoken form of the language can best be preserved for later generation when these sound symbols are represented, in turn by written symbols, usually called an alphabet.

The Greeks took the Phoenician system of writing and developed it into an alphabet. The Greek alphabet was an improvement over the Phoenician system of writing, as the Greeks used written symbols for vowels, which were not represented in previous forms of writings. From the Greeks, the alphabet spread to other Mediterranean countries as well as to other nations of Europe. It is the alphabet that has made the enjoyment of literature, past and present, possible.

Languages change in time. Linguistic change occurs in all aspects of language; in the pronunciation of the language as well as in the morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. It is the nature of speech production that makes linguistic change possible. No two persons speak in exactly the same manner, as the machinery for speech production in one individual is different in some ways, however minute, from any other. It is also a fact that no individual pronounces a single item or word twice exactly in the same way. If the "organs of speech" can be made to take exactly the same shape for producing one word twice, the time taken in the production of the item is not constant, however unimportant for understanding this time difference may be.

Linguistic change is a very slow process. It does not happen in the history of language that the speakers of a certain language stop pronouncing certain sounds today and start learning new sounds tomorrow. What happens is a gradual change occurring to various members of the speech community. This speech community, which includes all the members who speak one language understandable to them all, may witness some linguistic changes shared by the majority of its members. Other changes occur only on a limited scale and are shared by a few individuals only. Such minor linguistic changes do not usually have a lasting influence on the development of the language, and it is the first type of linguistic change that constitutes the subject matter of historical linguistics.

This type of linguistic change that occurs as a result of individual differences in the muscular movements of the "organs

of speech" is only one of the reasons why languages split up. But languages may split up for at least two other reasons; and it is to be noticed that these three factors causing linguistic change may work separately or together. The two other factors are the **geograpical** factor and **borrowing**.

The Geographical factor: When seas, rivers or mountains separate one community from another, both of which originally spoke the same language, two distinct dialects of the same language begin to evolve. In time, these two dialects become two different languages. The Romans' languages, for example, are a group of languages spoken in Romania, Italy, France, Portugal, Spain, and the whole of Central and South America. This group of languages were at one time only dialects of one language, Latin.

Geographical factors make themselves felt also in another way. When two communities originally speaking the same language come to be separated by some geographical barrier by emigration, for example, the language of each of these two communities begin to reflect influences from the new environment. This explains some of the differences between English in Britain and in the United States.

Borrowing: Linguistic borrowing takes place as a result of contact between different speech communities by migration or by conquest. Some of the sounds of one language may be borrowed by another language. The voiced labio-dental fricative [v] came into English from French centuries ago as a sound

occurring initially (at the beginning of words). Loans also occur in the vocabulary, and this may explain why such related words occur in Modern English: mind-intellect, explain-explicate, and kingly-royal-regal.

When two languages come in contact as a result of military conquest, the language of the conqueror is always the "upper" language, from which many words are usually borrowed into the "lower" language of the conquered. The language of the conquered may die out but, before it is extinct, some words will have been borrowed from this "lower" language into the "upper" language. This is the case with the words in American English from the languages of the conquered American Indians. it happens, however, that the language of the conquered may survive and the "upper" language die out. This was what happened to the French language of the upper class in England after the Norman Conquest.

In the historical description of a language, linguists have agreed that such a study may be conveniently divided into: phonology, morphology, syntax, and vocabulary. Phonology includes the study of sounds and their developments in the history of the language. In morphology, the words in their different forms are studied, while the study of phrases and sentences is taken up in syntax. The study of vocabulary is of special importance for the historical description of a language, since it is vocabulary that is readily borrowed and it relfects clearly the foreign influences on the language during its development.

Types of Linguistic Change:

Sound Change:

In the nineteenth century, European scholars were intereseted in the study of linguistic change and in making comparison between the historical change in different languages. Early in the century, the two European scholars, Rasmus Rask and Jacob Grimm, found out relationships between different Indo-European languages and explained these differences on the basis of linguistic change. They established that Sanskrit, Latin, Greek, and the Germanic languages are related. This judgment was built on the fact that in place of **p** or **t** in Latin the Germanic languages usually had **f** or **d** at the beginning of words with the same meanings:

English	Latin
Father	Pater
Few	pauci
Foot	pes
Two	duo
Tooth	dens

These and similar correspondences (regular relationships) came to be called **Grimm's Law**.

In 1876 Verner made a further study of these correspondences (sounds relationships). By the end of the nineteenth century, historical linguists began to speak of phonetic laws as laws which allow for no exceptions. It is clear that these laws are not laws but historical occurrences. There is a great difference

between a law of biology or physics and a sound change that occurs in the history of a language. The assumption that phonetic "laws" have no exceptions is actually "recognition of linguistic changes other than sound-change"(1).

Assimilation:

Assimilation is a sound change resulting from the influence of one sound on another neighbouring one. The position, or movement of one or more parts of the "organs of speech" in making a certain sound, changes to conform to the position or movement necessary for making the neighbouring sound. In **progressive assimilation** the later sound is altered. The sentence "open the door" is sometimes pronounced "opem the door", where the consonant [n] has changed to [m] to be similar to [p]. Both [p] and [m] are bilabial sounds, although the first is a stop and the second a nasal.

Regressive assimilation involves the change of the prior sound. In this commoner type of assimilation the latter sound may be changed completely or only partly. The word **assimilation** itself contains a regressive assimilation, where the [d] of **ad** in the compound **ad + similation** (originally a Latin word) has changed to [s] under the influence of the [s] in **similation**. The word **"husband"** is another example of regressive assimilation. Its first part [hez] is related to the word house [haws], where the final consonant is the voiceless fricative [s]. In the word husband, however, the voiceless fricative [s] has become the voiced fricative [z] under the influence of a following [b].

(1) L.Bloomfield, Language, New York, 1933. P. 355.

Dissimilation:

Dissimilation is the replacement of one of two similar non-adjacent sounds by a different sound. The word **purple** in English, for example, was originally the Latin word **purpur**; but, since the Latin word has two [r] consonats, one of which has changed to [l] in English, the change of [r] has been called dissimilation. Another example is the English word "ignoble" instead of innoble.

Metathesis:

Metathesis is the exchange of the position of two sounds within a word. In old English there were two forms for the verb "ask", and these two forms were **ascian and acsian**. In the two forms the consonant [s] occurs once before [k] and another time after it; and this interchange of [s] and [k] is called metathesis. This same phenomenon exists in the Arabic dialects which have (? ara: nib) and (? ana: rib) for "rabbits".

These are only three types of sound change, and further types will be presented in the treatment of the history of English sounds.

Analogic Change:

Analogy or Analogic change is the principle by which the exception is dropped and the "regular" grammatical rule is generalized. Sound change occurs in the field of phonology; but analogic change occurs in the morphology and syntax of the language.

Linguists have not spoken of "analogic laws" in the same way that they have spoken of sound or "phonetic laws" because analogic change is not so persistent as phonetic change, and because the investigation of the principle of analogy has been made in the study of the internal development of individual languages, and not in the comparative study of many languages.

In English, for example, the plural form **cows** is a modern addition to the language, as this plural form appears neither in old English nor in Middle English. It is the result of the combination of the Old English noun **cu** [ku:] and the plural suffix - s [-z]. On the analogy of many other English nouns which take - s in the plural like dogs and boys, the noun cows has dropped the Old English plural suffix, and taken over the "regular" plural suffix - s ([-z] in this change).

The principle of analogy is again at work when new words enter the language. When the word astronaut first appeared in English, it was only to be expected of the native speakers of English to speak of astronauts in the plural on the analogy of other plural nouns in the language.

Semantic Change:

Semantic change is the change that occurs to the meanings of words. The five commoner types of semantic change are: narrowing, widening, metaphor, degeneration, and elevation.

a. Narrowing:

In narrowing or specialization, the meaning loses its wider application. The Old English word **mete** "meat", for example

used to indicate food in general; but its use in Modern English has been narrowed down to mean "flesh good for eating".

b. Widening:

In Middle English, the word bridde used to mean "a small young bird", but it is now used for any type of birds. Similarly, the word **cafeteria** in American English designates a restaurant where different kinds of food are sold. This is a widening or a generalization of the original meaning of the word in Spanish, which is simply a coffee shop.

c. Metaphor:

In metaphors, the meaning is hinted at or suggested by comparison or analogy. When we say "Words are silver, but silence is golden", the two words silver and golden are used in a transferred or metaphorical meaning each.

d. Degeneration:

Degeneration or pejoration is the lowering of meaning or the adaptation of worse meanings. The word fool, which once meant a court jester, has come now to mean a stupid or reckless person. The word villian meant in Early Modern English a farm labourer, but it now means a criminal.

e. Elevation:

In elevation or amelioration the meanings are heightened. The word angel originally meant a messenger; but, as it is now used, it is applied to a noble heavenly messenger, the word "fond" meant in Hamlet (Act L. Sec. 5/1/1999) "foolish", but now it means "affectionate".



Chapter 1
A Historical Survey

The first inhabitants of Britain:

Of the first inhabitants of Britain, the people who lived there during the Stone Ages, little is known. However, there is the notion that they came from the Mediterranean regions, wore skins of animals, knew how to use fire and lived in caves.

About 600 BC they were conquered by the Gaels who belonged to the Celtic race. These were later joined by another group of the Celtic race who came to Britain from Europe, and these "Brythons" (Britons) were so-called from the Celtic word "brethyn" (cloth-wearing). They settled in the Southern fertile half of the island, looking after their sheep and land. They worked in iron and some of them knew how to make bronze by mixing copper and tin. They also learned the working of gold and jet ornaments, growing of corn and using the plough from the more civilized people of the Mediterranean who reached the southern shores of Britain by trading.

It was for bronze, gold and corn that the Romans came and drove the Britons to the ragged hilly parts of Scotland, Wales and Cornwall, as well as over the sea to Ireland and the Isle of Man. There they lived on as a separate race with a civilization and literature of their own, but their stories and poetry afterwards crept into English and enriched it considerably.

The Romans invade Britain:

In the year 55 BC the Britain who had been accustomed to see the Roman trades on their shores, were alarmed to see a well-equipped Roman army invading their country. Caesar, a Roman general, being in Gaul, decided to invade Britain because his enemies, the Gaulish chiefs, were taking refuge there, and also to get rid of the Druid Priests who were a great menace to the Romans and who had their headquarters in Britain.

Cæsar's first attempt to invade Britain failed because of the fierce opposition put up by the Britons and in consequence, he had to retreat to Gaul. He made another attempt in the year 54 BC but failed and the relation between the Britons and the Romans was merely commercial. This relation extended over a period of about ninety years during which Christ was born in Judea, a Roman Province.

In the year 43 C. E. the Emperor Claudius was master of Rome which was at that time more powerful than ever. Wanting to add Britain to the Roman Empire, Claudius sent an army of about 40.000 men to conquer it. Although the inhabitants, encouraged by the Druids (the British priests), put up a fierce opposition, the country was eventually conquered. There remained, however, certain parts such as Wales and cornwall that kept on resisting the unwanted conquerors.

In the year 78 C. E. Rome sent a new kind of governor to Britain, a man named Agricola who succeeded indeed in making peace although he was always annoyed by certain tribes who were still encouraged by the Druids. Agricola sympathized with

the conquered Britons and tried to teach them how to keep peace, to build towns and roads on the Roman type and to learn Latin. Furthermore, the Britons were instructed in how to measure their fields and Britain became then an important wheat-growing country.

Under Constantine, the first Christian Roman Emperor, the Britons were converted to Christianity. This brought the Britons into closer contact with the rest of the Roman Empire. This contact brought laws, order, protection, a new civilization and a new language to the country.

The Anglo-Saxons invade Roman - Britain[1]:

The fierce tribes of the Anglo Saxons and Jutes, whose homes were in Jutland and round the mouths of the Weser and Elbe, raided the southern and eastern shores of Britain constantly between the years 350 to 500.

As long as the Roman garrisons defended Britain, the Saxon raiders had been content to make sudden attacks on the villages along the coasts and run away with their plunders. But, when the Roman garrisons were called back to Italy as the entire Roman Empire was being attacked by all sorts of "Barbarians", the Britons were left helpless and the Saxons succeeded in invading the country and settled there with their families. First came the Jutes about the year 450, and conquered Kent and as far along the southern coast as the Isle of Man. The Saxons followed them south and farther west and then came the Angles who settled

(1) The Anglo Saxons and Jutes were all known as Saxons to the Roman Britons.

along the Eastern coast and gave their name to the whole country Englaland or England.

Since the Saxons did not have the Roman idea of living in peace with the conquered people, they destroyed all the villages and towns and suffocated the civilization which was about to flourish. In consequence, the majority of the Roman Britons fled to Scotland, Wales, lreland and Cumberland.

Less things were grown and made in Britain in the time of the Saxons than under the Romans. However, they set down the rules and customs of the country in the "Dooms of Ine", and had the "Witan", or the council of the elder nobles who helped the king in ruling the country and who formed the beginning of a constitutional government. They were also fond of a kind of literature shown in their poems about Wayland and Beowulf. Although their monks and monasteries tried to spread learning among the people, progress was very slow because of the constant fighting between the small kingdoms inside the country.

King Alfred was typical of the Anglo - Saxon Kings. He was a learned man, ambitious, keen, travelled twice to Rome and tried during all his life to improve conditions of learning in England as well as defending the country against the (Viking) raids. He not only saved England from the Danes, but probably pervented The Anglo-Saxon speech from being completely absorbed or up-rooted. He brought over scholars from the Continent and himself translated into English a number of Latin books. The Anglo-Saxon Chronicle was certainly encouraged if not begun by him, and in it were set down the events and curious

happenings of the time. It has provided scholars with an almost continuous history of England right up to the Norman Conquest and beyond.

The Danes (Vikings) invade England (Englaland):

The Danes, who were tribes coming from Norway, Sweden and Denmark, raided the shores of England from 350 C. E. onwards. They were fiercer fighters than the Anglo-Saxons to whom they were related and spoke a similar language, but they still worshipped heathen gods and spent their days in war and plunder. Although they had little civilization and no written literature, they were fond of reciting or singing their sages or long narrative poems of their gods and heroes.

To the Danes, barren homelands provided little food or comfort so they became sea-robbers and made repeated attacks on England. They burned down homes, carried away cattle and drove the villagers to seek shelter in the forest. They destroyed the churches and monasteries and burned the parchment books they lay hands on. Although King Alfred and his successors fought bravely against the Danes, yet by the year 1000 they had more than one - half the country and in 1019 the Anglo-Saxons were forced to accept the Dane, Canute, as their king.

Although the Anglo-Saxons and the Danes spoke different forms of the same parent language, yet as they mixed together in church, in the market-place and at work, they exchanged many words and the two languages were gradually amalgamated.

The Normans invade England:

Taking advantage of the small fights which were taking place among the chiefs of England, each of whom claimed his right to the throne, William, the Duke of Normandy, landed in England in 1066. His army was stronger and better trained and equipped than any Anglo-Saxon force. William fought Harold, the last of the Anglo-Saxon Kings, and killed him at the Battle of Hastings. Then he led his army cautiously to London while the Anglo-Saxons were quarrelling: one group wanted to fight and another wanted to come to terms with him. Meanwhile, William who was strongly encamped, decided to wait and see what came of all this. As he waited, a deputation came and offered him the crown, and he at once accepted it and began to advance towards London, laying waste the villages as he passed through. There was for the time no more resistance and on Christmas Day 1066 William was crowned at Westminster Abbey. His coronation took place less than three months after his victory at Hastings, but it took him more than five years to get command of the country. First of all, various parts of the North rebelled against him, then Cornwall, Devon, Shropshire, Stafforshire, Yorkshire and Northumberland all rose at different times. But it was in vain that they tried to get rid of him; William was a great fighter and a strong enemy.

Had the Battle of Hastings merely resulted in winning a crown for William of Normandy, the French contribution to the English language might have been very limited and specialized. But, in order to conquer England, William had had to collect an army

and had got to gather men from many parts of France by promising them land and other rewards if he won. So, after his victory at Hastings and after crushing the various rebellions against him, he took the lands of English Leaders and shared them with his followers. In the same way, the best posts in the English Church were given to French priests and bishops. Furthermore, the King of England, being still Duke of Normandy, vast regions of France were subject to English rule under the Angevin Kings. During the Hundred Years War there were continual commercial and political dealings between the two countries. All this gave impetus to the use of the French language in England, especially after the great prestige of French medieval literature had made the language almost international.



Chapter 2
English and the Indo-European Family of Languages

The kinship of English with certain other languages of Europe and Asia is not superficially apparent, but has been fully established by researches made in the 19th Century. Together, all these languages make up the Indo-European family of languages.

Having observed that there exist related forms in a number of European and Asiatic languages and that the relationship shows itself in certain resemblances reflected in phonetic correspondence which can be explained only on the assumption that the languages are divergent forms of a single older language, scholars have concluded that these languages belong to a common ancestor.

For example, the word "is" is more or less similar in some of the better known European and Asiatic languages:

Sanskrit : asti
Persian : ast
Greek : esti
Latin : est   Ancestral Prehistoric Form: esti
Russian : jest
Italian : é
German : ist
English : is

Having this bit of knowledge in their service, scholars are able to reconstruct the ancestral prehistoric form from which the various related forms must be descended. However, they do not know that all these forms co-existed in one language. Nor would they be right to assume that there was necessarily a race or people who spoke this Indo-European as their language. The term Indo-European is used because it merely suggests that the languages it comprises cover most of Europe and India, or that Europe and India mark the length of its confines.

The Indo-European Hypothesis:

The Indo-European Hypothesis is based on the idea that towards the end of the stone age there lived a people or peoples speaking a tongue that was the common ancestor of a great number of languages of Europe and Asia. This does not imply either that the original Indo-Europeans were racially a unit or their speech descendants are racially akin. It does imply, however, that there was a focal area from which radiated all the subdivisions of the Indo European family of languages.

In order to determine where the focal area was, anthropological, archaeological and chiefly linguistic investigations were made, and it is now generally believed that the Indo-European home was in central or south-eastern Europe, though some scholars contended that it was farther to the north. At about the year 1000 B.C. the Aryans, (from Sanskrit aryans - noble - as the fair - skinned conquerors of India called themselves) who had lived at a point in south-eastern Europe near the Asian border, spread East and West and mixed with the

people of the lands they reached. This mixture brought about as the centuries went by, the modern languages of Europe, Persia and India.

The Discovery of Sanskrit[1]:

The most important factor leading to the Indo-European Hypothesis was the discovery of the similarity of many Sanskrit words with Greek and Latin. As early as 1767 the French Jesuit missionary Coeurdoux sent to the French Institute a memoir in which he called attention to the similarity of many Sanskrit words with Latin, and even compared the flexion of the present indicative and subjunctive of Sanskrit asmi, "I am," with the corresponding forms of Latin grammar. Then in 1796, Sir William Jones wrote the following:

"The Sanskrit language, whatever be its antiquity, is of a wonderful structure; more perfect than the Greek, more copious than the Latin and more exquisitely refined than either, yet bearing to both of them a stronger affinity, both in the roots of verbs and in the forms of grammar, than could possibly have been produced by accident; so strong indeed, that no philologer could examine them all three without believing them to have sprung from some common source, which, perphaps, no longer exists. there is a similar reason, though not quite so forcible, for supposing that both the Gothic and the Celtic had the same origin with the Sanskrit; and the old persian might be added to the same family".

(1) Sanskrit is a language of Ancient India.

Sir William Jones, however, did nothing to carry out in detail the comparison thus begun, and it was reserved for other scholars such as Friedrich von Schlegel, Rasmus Rask, Jacob Grimm and others to follow up the clue he had given and fully establish the Indo - European Hypothesis.

The Indo - European Family of Languages:

The Indo-European family of languages comprises a great variety of languages, including, besides some languages of less importance, Sanskrit and many living languages of India; Iranian with modern Persian; Greek; Latin with the Modern Romance languages (Italian, Spanish, French etc.); Celtic, two divisions of which still survive, one is Welsh, the other is the closely connected Irish and Scotch-Gaelic Baltic; (Lithuanian and Lettic) and Slavonic (Russian Czech, Polish, etc.). It also includes Germanic with the extinct Gothic and the living German, Dutch, Frisian, English, Danish, Swedish, Norwegian and Icelandic.

The Indo - European family of languages is divided into two main groups according to the sound of the initial consonant that appears in such words as the Latin **Centum**, and the Avestan **Satem**, the word for "hundred". The centum group includes Germanic, Celtic, Italic, Hellenic and Tokharian and the Satem group includes Balto-Slavic Albanian, Armenian and Indo-Iranian.

The centum group is further subdivided into two sub-groups; Germanic on one side and Celtic, Italic and Hellenic on the other. This sub-division results from observations made by Jacob Grimm on certain phonetic correspondences, one of which is that

the [k] in non Germanic (Celtic, Italic and Hellenic) is [h] in Germanic. For example:

Non-Germanic		**Germanic**	
Celtic (Old Irish)	: cride	English	: heart
Italic (Latin)	: cordis	German	: herz
Hellenic (Greek)	: kardia	Old Norse	: hjarta
		Danish	: hjerte
		Swedish	: hjárta

General characteristics of the Indo - European Languages:

1- Indo - European Languages generally lend themselves in structure to that description of forms invented by the ancient Greeks and named by them "Parts of Speech", that is forms thought of as "nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs, etc".

2- These languages have so much in common, namely, a shared nucleus of fundamental vocabulary which serves to distinguish them from all other languages. Among the words that can be shown to be still common to all the members of the family are the numerals from one to ten, the words father, mother, brother, sister, and the names for many of the commonest things, qualities and actions. For example:

Sanskrit	: bhrātā	Russian	: brat
Bengali	: bhrata	German	: Bruder
Greek	: phratēr	Danish	: broder
Latin	:frater	Dutch	: broeder
Old Irish	: brathir	English	: brother

3- What is even more important is that these languages have a full system of declensions and conjugations. Compare the following forms of verb to be:

Sanskrit	Greek	Latin	Gothic	Old English	
Asmi	eimi	sum	im	eom	(am)
Asi	ei	es	is	eart	(are)
Asti	esti	est	ist	is	(is)
Smas	esmen	sumus	sijum	sindon	(are)
Stha	este	estis	sijuΦ	sindon	(are)
Santi	eisi	sunt	sind	sindon	(are)

English and the Germanic Languages:

It has already been mentioned that the Indo-European Family of Languages is divided into two main groups: the centum or western group including Gremanic, Celtic, Italic, Hellenic and Tokharian. The Germanic group is in turn subdivided into East Germanic, North Germanic, and West Germanic. Gothic, now extinct, the languages of some Germanic (Teutonic) tribes which settled on the lower Danube, belongs to East Germanic. The North Germanic or Scandinavian group is now represented by Swedish, Danish, Norwegian and Icelandic. The West Germanic includes Low and High German. Low German includes Dutch, Frisian, Old Saxon, Anglo-Saxon, (Old English), and Middle and Modern English. High German includes Old High German, Middle High German, and Modern German. Low German, here represented by English, is chiefly distinguished from High

German, here represented by the language we now call German, by certain consonantal features. These resulted from what is called the Second or High German Sound Shift. The effect of this shifting may be seen by comparing the English and German words in the following pairs:

English	German
Open	Offen
Water	wasser
Pound	pfund
Tongue	zunge
Over	ober
Thing	ding
Sit	sitzen

The main characteristics of the Germanic languages:

1- These languages have so much in common, namely, a shared nucleus of fundamental vocabulary which serves to distinguish them from the non-Germanic languages. So close is this relationship among them that, allowing for the change which many centuries have brought about in the sound and form of words and often in their meanings, the kernel of their vocabularies, that is, the names of the commonest objects, qualities and actions, remain almost identical. For example, the English adjective **small**, corresponds to Dutch **smal**, German **schmal**, Danish, Norwegian and Swedish **smal**, Gothic **smals**, and Old Frisian **smel**. Similarly the English noun heart, corresponds to German **herz**, Danish **hjerte**, and Gothic **hairto**.

This close relationship is even more apparent in the following examples:

English : Give us this day our daily bread.
German : Gib uns heute unser taglich Brot.
Dutch : Geef ons heden ons dagelijksch brood.
Danish : Give os Day vort daglige Brod.
Swedish : Giv oss i dag vorr daglia brod.
Icelandic : Gef oss i dag vort daglegt braud.

2- The Germanic languages are also characterized by a simple conjugation of verbs comprising chiefly two tenses - past and present - compared to, for example, Latin verbs which have a very elaborate series of synthetic forms to differentiate various concepts of voice, mood, tense, person and number. The most distinctive feature of the Germanic verb, however, is its development of a new way of indicating the past simple and past participle by means of a dental suffix, the -ed of English and the -te and of German. The old pattern inherited from Indo-European and comprising "internal vowel change", then is traditionally called "strong", and the new pattern is called "weak". Examples:

1- Strong (irregular) using internal vowel change:

sing - sang - sung

swim - swam - swum

2- weak (regular) adding the suffix-ed:

walk - walked - walked

beg - begged - begged

3- In all Germanic languages the adjective has two declensions, the strong and the weak. The strong declension is used when an adjective stands alone before a noun or is used in the predicate relation, and the weak declension is used substantively or when preceded by a defining element (e.g. the definite article). Following is an example showing the strong and weak declensions of the Old English adjective god (good):

Paradigm of the strong declension[1]:

Sing.	*Masculine*	*Feminine*	*Neuter*
Nom.	gōd	gōd	gōd
Gen.	gōd-es	gōd-re	gōd-es
Dat.	gōd-um	gōd-re	gōd-um
Ace.	gōd-ne	gōd-e	gōd
Inst.	gōd-e	gōd-re	gōd-e

plur.	*Masculine*	*Feminine*	*Neuter*
Nom., Acc.	gōd-e	gōda, gōde	gōd, gōde
Gen.	gōdra	gōd-ra	gōd-ra
Dat., Inst.	gōdum	gōd-um	gōd-um

Paradigm of the weak declension:

Sing.	*Masculine*	*Feminine*	*Neuter*
Nom.	gōd-a	gōd-e	gōd-e
Gen.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-an
Dat.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-ab

(1) The Elements of Old English: Moore & Knott. The George Wahr Publishing Company, Co. Ann Arbor, Michigon, 1955. (pp. 35 - 37).

Sing.	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Acc.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-e
Inst.	gōd-an	gōd-an	gōd-an

plur. All Genders

Nom., Acc.	gōd-an
Gen.	gōd-ena, gōd-ra
Dat., Inst.	gōd-um

4- The fourth characteristic feature of Germanic languages is their stress, fixed rather than free or variable. The original Indo-European and primitive Germanic stress was variable; e.g. it might shift, in the inflection of a word, from the base syllable to a syllable of the inflectional ending. The Germanic branch during the primitive period, when it was becoming separated from the Indo-European parent language, shifted its stress back to the base syllable, when it became fixed, and this is inherited in Modern English, where the tendency is generally to stress strongly the first syllable of a word excluding prefixes that are felt as such.

The most important effect that the heavy Germanic stress has had upon the development of English has been that of slurring and frequently altogether dropping unstressed vowels. Because the stress usually falls on the first syllable of words and because English inflections are chiefly on the final syllables, it has been easy for inflectional endings to become weakened, obscured, and lost, and consequently to simplify the whole system of

inflections. Here is the chief reason, too, for the largely monosyllabic form of the native English word stock.

5- The fifth characteristic feature of the Germanic languages is the regular shifting of the Indo-European stopped consonant sounds known as Grimm's Law (now more often called the First Germanic Consonant Shift). The feature was arrived at and testified by Rask, Grimm and others through observation of correspondences between Germanic and other Indo-European languages. From among the huge mass of resemblant forms, they selected certain ones which exhibited uniform phonetic correlations. Stated in present-day terms, these phonetic correlations appear as follows:

1. Indo-European voiced aspirated stops became Germanic voiced stops:

   [bh] - [b] : Sanskrit (bhrātā) - English brother

   [dh] - [d] : Sanskrit adhāt - English did

   [gh] - [g] : I.E. ghostis - English guest

2. Indo-European voiced stops became Germanic voiceless stops:

   [b] - [p] : Greek kannabis - English hemp

   [d] - [t] : Latin duo - English two

   [g] - [k] : Latin ager - English acre

3. Indo-European voiceless stops became Germanic voiceless stops:

   [p] - [f] : Latin pēs - English foot

[t] - [o] : Latin trēs - English three

[k] - [h] : Latin centum - English hundred

cronū - English horn

Certain apparent exceptions to Grimm's Law were subsequently explained by Hermann Grassmann and Karl Verner. It was observed that there was a number of words in which the initial voiced stops (b. d. g) of Germanic are parallelled in Sanskrit not by (bh. dh. gh), as Grimm would have it, but by (b, d, g), and in Greek not by the expected (ph, th, kh), but by (p, t, k). Hermann Grassmann (1809-1877) showed that Sanskrit and Greek do not have aspirated stops at the beginning of two successive syllables, but wherever the related languages show this pattern, have the first of the two stops unaspirated.

It was also noted that between such a pair of words as Latin **centum** and English **hundred** the correspondence between the **c** [k] and **h** was according to rule, but that between the **t** and **d** was not. The d in the English word would have been a voiceless fricative, that is, a [ø]. In 1875 Karl Verner showed that when the Indo - European stress was not on the vowel immediately preceding, such voiceless spirants (fricatives) became voiced in Germanic. In West Germanic the resulting [t] became a [d], and the word **hundred** is therefore quite regular in its correspondence with **centum**. Similarly in Old English the past singular of **cweøan** (to say) is **cwaø** but the plural is we **cwædon**. In the latter word, the stress was originally on the second syllable, as it was in the past participle **cweden**, where we also have a **d**.

Chapter 3
Foreign Elemens in English

Foreign Elements in English:

English vocabulary is abundant, heterogeneous and varied. It reflects the whole of English history, external and internal, political and social. All the peoples with whom speakers of English have come into contact during almost the fifteen centuries of its growth have almost, without exception, left indelible marks on the vocabulary.

It is, therefore, essential to sketch and illustrate the influences of foreign languages that have contributed to the building of English vocabulary and have also in so doing helped to shape English thought and expression.

The Celtic Element in English:

Three different strata of Celtic loan-words may be recognized in Old English.

1- There are a few early continental loans, borrowed from Old Celtic and are common to all Germanic languages, e.g.,

Germanic	: rīki (kingdom)
Old English	Rīce
Modern German	Reich
Modern English	Rich

2- Words borrowed from the Britons after the Anglo-Saxon invasion are chiefly the names of natural objects, animals and things of everyday use, e.g.:

assa - ass

carr - rock

luh - lake

Names of districts, places, hills, rivers and forests were also taken over directly by the Anglo-Saxons from the Britons; Kent, Devon, Cornwall and Leeds were formed from Celtic tribal names. Celtic names of rivers are also to be found in all parts of England. Several have simply the meaning of "water" and occur repeatedly: Avon, Stour and Isca (... Esk, Usk, Exe, etc.). Some are descriptive, such as cam "crooked" and Dee "holy". Of place-names other than those of the types referred to, the chief survivors are names of the most important Roman-Briton towns, though many of them have an English suffix added such Salis (bury) and Win-(chester).

3- There is also a very small group of ecclesiastical and religious terms introduced into Old English from Old Irish by Irish missionaries during the Seventh Century, e.g. dry: "a magician, sorcerer".

Almost all the Celtic loan - words became established as popular words; there is very little "learned" element since nearly all of them passed from mouth to mouth and not through the influence of literature.

Latin and Greek Elements in English:

The early inhabitants of Britain came to know a number of Latin words as a result of their contact with the Roman Empire through trade. Then the country became the field of an organised invasion by Roman troops and subsequently parts of the Roman Empire whose mother tongue was Latin. As a result a great many Latin words were introduced into the native tongue of the Britons. These were basically names of essential commodities, mostly articles of diet and words connected with the arts of civilization. Examples:

Latin	*Old English*	*Modern English*
Vinum	Wīn	Wine
Pisum	pise	pea
Coquus	coc	cook
Coquina	cycene	kitchen
Catinus	cytel	kettle
Ponto	punt	punt
Molina	mylen	mill
Pondo	pund	pound
Uncia	ynce	inc
Moneta	mynet	mint
mille passum	mīl	mile

About the year 600 C.E. Britain was converted to Christianity, and the conversion had far-reaching linguistic consequences reflected in the borrowing of a great number of ecclesiastical

terms most of which were originally Greek but had become latinized. Examples:

Greek	*Latin*	*Old English*	*Modern English*
Kuriakon	....	cirice, cyrice	Church
	monasterium	mynster	minister
Diabolos	diabolus	deofol	devil
Aggelos	angelus	engel	angel
Presbyteros	presbyter	preost	priest

Besides borrowing, the English utilized the resources of their own languages to a great extent, and this was done in three ways: by forming new words from the foreign loans by means of native affixes, by modifying the sense of existing English words, and finally by framing new words from native stems. The process of affixing native endings to foreign words resulted in such words as priesthood (Old English prēothād combining prēost and the suffix- -hād), and Christendom (Old English crīstendōm combining crīsten (Christian) and the suffix - dōm). Existing native words were largely turned to account to express Christian ideas, the sense only being more or less modified. An example of this process is the word easter (Old English eastron, the name of an old pagan spring festival, called after Austro, a goddess of spring).

Compounding was also resorted to, and in some instances the three Magi were called tungolwītegan from tungol "star", and wītega "wise man". The new terms were simply fitted together from translations of the component parts of the Greek or Latin

word they were intended to render. For example, Greek evaggelion was rendered god-spell which was often taken to be the "spell" or message of God (modern gospel). Another example is Ørynnes or Ørines ("three-ness") from Latin trinity.

The Norman conquest in 1066 led indirectly to a strengthening of the Latin element in English. The French churchmen who then almost monopolized the higher ecclesiastical positions were more learned than their predecessors and adopted Latin words freely in their writings, a practice all the more natural since their own language was of Latin origin.

In 1453 the Turks took Constantinople from the Greeks who scattered throughout Europe, carrying with them the knowledge of their language and culture. Italy was the first country to feel the effects of this great historical event, the Renaissance or revival of learning. From Italy the movement spread to France and then to England.

The spirit of the Renaissance had far-reaching linguistic influences on European languages in general and on English in particular. Latin words, which, throughout the Middle Ages had been adopted as single borrowings, began to be used in great numbers. Among the educated people there was a tendency to mix the native speech with Latin words. The Renaissance also gave a great strength to the direct borrowing of Greek words. English writers, philosophers, scientists and translators found in Greek a rich source of terms in which their native tongue was comparatively poor. This tendency went on in the seventeenth

and eighteenth centuries. Educated people thought it dignified to say 'sufficient' instead of 'enough', 'transpire' instead of 'sweat'; 'expire' instead of 'end' ; 'valedictory address' instead of "farewell speech", and 'He expired in indigent circumstances' instead of 'He died poor'.

The Renaissance revealed new vistas, in art as well as in science, and classical literature became a fruitful source of information and inspiration. As a result, English writers, philosophers, and translators adopted hundreds of words together with the ideas they stood for, and these seemed to them an indispensable means of enriching their native language, which to them appeared poor as compared with the rich storehouses of Latin and Greek. But as time passed on, the ideas derived from classical authors were no longer sufficient for the civilized world; new ideas and new ways of life developed and demanded linguistic expression. In their quest for this 'linguistic expression', the educated people whose minds had been very much influenced by classical studies, turned to Latin and Greek and drew upon their vocabularies in preference to their own native stock of words. This is seen very extensively in the domain of modern science, in which hundreds of terms have been framed from Latin and Greek roots, most of them compound words. A few examples are telescope, microscope, telephone, telegraph, and television.

Furthermore, quite a number of words have been coined through the use of Latin and Greek prepositions and adverbs as prefixes. A few examples are:

Hypersensitive - hyperactive - (Greek hyper = above).

Hyposensitive - hypoactive - (Greek hypo = under).

ante- Christian (Latin ante = before)

ante- Norman

Antewar

anti - imperialist (Greek anti = against)

Antinoise

Antiwar

pro-Arab (Latin pro = for).

pro - German

pre - arrange (Latin prae (pre) = before).

pre-engage

Preprint

Preview

inter-national (Latin inter = among, between).

Interlay

Interrelate

inter- Allied

Interracial

rebirth (Latin re- = back, again).

re-organize

re-submit

re-collect

recover
re-act
reconstruct
exhale (Greek exo= outside/Latin ex= out of).
expose
exceed (beyond)
expatriate (out of)
exchange
exclude
paragraph (Greek para= beside)
Paraphrase
para-typhoid
ex- king (ex= former)
ex- headmaster

Hybrids, in which one of the component parts is either Latin or Greek, have also been coined, Following are a few examples:

1) Hybrids with -ist (Latin -ista, from Greek- istes = A suffix denoting agent nouns).

Industrialist	dentist	walkist
Specialist	tourist	
Socialist	individualist	
	economist	

2) Hybrids with - ism (Latin ismus, from Greek- iscos = forming a suffix denoting action or state.

industrialism	witticism
socialism	
capitalism	
colloquialism	
organism	

3) Hybrids with- ize (Latin - izare, from Greek - izein. A suffix forming verbs = in the senses of to render or to make or to practise).

Industrialize
Capitalize
Satirize
Realize
Organize
Womanize

Greek words have also been used as the root of new compounds.

Examples:

Hydroplane	(Greek hydor = water)
Hydro-electric	
Hydrometer	
Hydrosphere	
Phonology	(Greek phone = sound)
Phonetics	
Phonemics	

Phonograph	(phōnō, Latin graphicus, from Greek graphikos, from graphein = to write).
Photography	(Greek phōtos = light).
Photofilm	
Photostat	
Photo-offset	
Photo-sensitive	

The French Element in English:

Even before the Norman Conquest, there had already been established a social, political, as well as an ecclesiastical intercourse between the ruling classes of England and Normandy. Although most people of the two countries had nothing in common, there existed a kind of relation between the Courts, Aristocracy, and the Churches of the two countries.

With the Conquest, this intercourse was strengthened especially through the re-ordering of the government and upper social life under the influence of a French occupying power. The English Court, Aristocracy and Church and Fashion, were recast on the French model, and the French words that had been previously borrowed in small numbers, began to invade the native language. For almost three centuries after the Conquest, two languages were spoken in England, French at the Court, among the nobility, in administrative circles, English by the common people. The French taught the English many things relating to art, not only such words as art, beauty, colour, image,

design, figure, paint, but also the greater number of more special words of technical significance are French; from architecture may be mentioned arch, tower, pillar, vault, column, aisle, chapel and cloister. Hence we find that the early French element in English is largely concerned with special aspects of the national life; 'Court' is French, as also are the English titles of nobility such as baron, duke. To the titles of nobility may be added constable and marshal; chancellor, judge and jury are also of French origin.

As a rule, the elementary callings: smith, weaver, skinner, kept their native names, while the luxury trades became French: draper, spicer and tailor. Similarly, the French merchant was as superior to the native dealer as dentist to tooth-drawer.

In the Thirteenth Century the French element gained strength through the influence of the University of Paris which was then the most famous university in Europe, and the literary vocabulary was affected by the imitation and translation of French models.

The Fourteenth Century witnessed a great increase in the number of borrowed words. French words were no more confined to the use of the aristocracy but had become integral parts of the English language. By the end of that century, the fusion had been more or less accomplished and (Chaucer) had at his command a vocabulary in which the native and French elements had become blended. Chaucer undoubtedly uses a far greater number of French words than most other writers of his

time due to the fact that he was more familiar with French culture and literature and consequently more strongly tempted to introduce French words in his literary works in a lucid and unrepulsive manner. There is no linguistic parallel to this complete fusion of two languages, one Germanic, the other of Latin origin, and it is to this fusion that English owes its unequalled richness of vocabulary and its power of poetic expression.

The Seventeenth Century witnessed an exceptionally close contact between English and French in matters of literature and social intercourse. The restoration of the monarchy to England in 1660 was the basis of this contact. Charles II who had been exiled in France was called back to England, and he and his party coloured the England Court, aristocracy and diplomacy with the French colour and this gave the French element in English more strength than ever.

The French Revolution which had a great influence on English life and thought offered the English language a number of words such as guillotine, regime, tri-colour, etiquette, ennui, police, poste- restante, coup, and espionage.

In the nineteenth century English started to borrow French words concerning dress, textiles and furniture. French diplomatic and military terms also continued to enrich the English vocabulary. In the Twentieth Century the process of borrowing from French was given vent because of the two

World Wars that brought England and France into closer contact than ever.

Recent borrowings from French show an increasing tendency to take in whole phrases, either as they stand in French, or by a literal translation, e.g.

comme il faut

enfant terrible

amour propre

goes without saying (va sans dire)

jump to the eyes (saute aux yeux)

Many of the French words, such as cry, claim, state, poor, and change have become part and parcel of the English language, so that they appear to speakers of English just as English as the pre-Conquest stock of native words. But a great many others have not become so popular. There are great many gradations between words of everyday speech and those not at all understood by the common people. These help us to understand some at least of the differences that have developed in the course of time between two synonyms when both have survived, one of them native, the other French. The former is always nearer to the nation's heart than the latter; it has the strongest associations with everything primitive, fundamental, popular, while the French word is often more formal, more polite, more refined and has a less strong hold on the emotional side of life.

English	*French*
Harm	injury
Upper	superior
Foe	enemy
Deep	profound
Lonely	solitary
Help	aid
Ghost	phantom, apparition
Weep	cry
Hut	cottage
Hearty	cordial

In some cases the chief difference between the native word and the French synonym is that the former is more colloquial and the latter more literary, e.g.

English	*French*
Begin	commence
Hide	conceal
Feed	nourish
Hinder	prevent
look for	search for
Inner	interior
Outer	exterior

So completely has the French element been blended into English that the speakers of the latter are not conscious of the mixture when they couple such a word as the native wholesale with the French retail, and it is only after reflection that they

realize that so English a dish as the roastbeef bears a purely French name. Nor are they sensible of hybridism when they attach native affixes to words of French origin, or affixes to native words, e.g.

1. The native prefix un-attached to words of Latin or French origin: uncivil, uninteresting, unwarrantable.
2. The French prefix dis-attached to native verbs: distrust, dislike.
3- The native suffixes -ful, -less, -dom, -ship, -hood, attached to French words: beautiful, artless, dukedom, courtship, childhood.
4- The French suffixes -able, -age, -ance -ity attached to native words: capable, leakage, forbearance, oddity.
5. Other instances of English endings added to French words are faintness, secretness (Chaucer), simpleness (Shakespeare).

Further, a great many adjectives in -ly : (courtly, princely) and adverbs with the same endings (faintly, easily, nobly) have been coined.

As the grammatical systems of the two languages were very different, it is necessary to remark here about the form in which French words were adopted. In the plural, Old French had a nominative without any ending and an accusative in -s, and the English naturally associated the latter form with the native plural ending in -es. In course of time those words which had for a long time, in English as in French, formed their plurals without any ending -(e.g. cas) were made to conform with the general rule

(singular cas, plural cases). French adjectives had the -s added to them just like French nouns, and although Chaucer used goddes celestials, and letters patents survived as a fixed group till the time of Shakespeare, the general rule was to treat French adjectives exactly like English ones, i.e. without the -s.

As to the verbs, the rule is that the stem of the French present plural served as basis for the English form; thus (je survis), nouns survivons, vous survivez, ils survivent become survive.

The French infinitive was imported in a substantial function, as in dinner, remainder, attainder, rejoinder, of the verbs dine, remain, attain, rejoin.

French loan-words have, as a matter of course, participated in all the sound changes that have taken place in English since their adoption.

Examples:

1. [i:] ___ [ay], e.g. fine [fi: n] ___ [fayn].
2. [u:] ___ [aw], e.g. tour [tu: r] ___ [tawər]
3. [e:] ___ [iy], e.g. aise [e: z] ___ [iyz].
4. [a:] ___ [ey], e.g. grace [gra: s] ___ [greys].

A great many words are stressed on the first syllable, which in French were stressed on the final syllable. As a matter of fact, French words in English were for centuries stressed in the French manner, as illustrated conclusively by Middle English poetry in which such pronunciations as the following occur: partít, figurés.

It was only gradually that more and more words had their stress shifted on to its present place. A strong reason for this shifting is the Modern English general tendency, inherited from Germanic, to stress strongly the first syllable of a word. This is clearly illustrated in the present pronunciation of such French words as, army, matter, January, February, cavalry, infantry, primary, orient, and others. An equally strong principle is English rhythm, which has not two consecutive strong syllables; compare modern: she is fiftéen, but fifteen yéars. Chaucer stresses many words in the French manner, except when they precede a stressed syllable, in which case the stress is shifted, thus cosyn (cousin), but cosyn myn; in felicité parfit. but a vérray párfit géntil knight. An instructive illustration is found in such a line as this (From the Canterbury Tales: D 1.486).

In divers árt and in divérs figúres.

These principles -stressing the base syllable and rhythm- will explain all or most of the instances in which English has shifted the French stress; but it is evident that it took a very long time before the new forms of the words which arose at first only occasionally through their influence were powerful enough finally to supplant the older forms.

The Scandinavian Element in English:

Near the end of the Old English period, English underwent a fourth foreign influence, the result of contact with Scandinavian which was brought to England by the invading Danes or Vikings.

In the attack of the Danes upon England, three well-marked stages can be distinguished. The first is the period of early raids, beginning according to the Anglo-Saxon Chronicle in 787 and continuing with some intermissions until about 850. The raids of this period were simply plundering attacks upon towns and monasteries near the coast. The second stage is the work of large armies and is marked by widespread plundering in all parts of the country and by extensive settlement. The third stage covers the period of political adjustment and assimilation from 878 to 1042.

The amalgamation of the two races (the Scandinavian and the English) was greatly facilitated by the close kinship that existed between them. The problem to the English was not the assimilation of an alien race representing an alien culture and speaking a wholly foreign tongue. Old English and Scandinavian (belonging to West Germanic and North Germanic respectively) were greatly similar as each stood so near to the common source. A great number of words were identical in the two languages. Had it been for the existence of English literature before the Viking invasion, it would have been utterly impossible to tell which language such words as man, wife, folk, house, winter, summer, came from. Also identical in the two languages were verbs like will, can, meet, bring, see, sit, smile, think, and adjectives and adverbs like full, wise, well, better, best, mine, thine. On the other hand, in many cases words were not identical but similar in one way or another. For example, Old Norse (Scandinavian) sveinn, lauss, and scyrte (shirt). Hence the basis existed for an extensive interaction of the two languages upon

each other, and this conclusion is amply borne out by the large number of Scandinavian features subsequently found in English.

The influence of Scandinavian on English is reflected in the unique phenomenon of the existence side by side for a long time, of two slightly differing forms for the same word, one the original English form and the other Scandinavian, e.g. no -nay; rear-raise; from -fro; and church -kirk; mouth -mum (only in dialects).

Sometimes Scandinavian gave a fresh lease of life to obsolete native words. The preposition till, for example is found only once or twice in Old English texts belonging to the pre-Scandinavian period. But, after that time it began to be exceedingly common in the North, from whence it spread southward; it was used (as in Danish) with regard to both time and space and it is still so used in Scottish.

There are some instances where Scandinavian, the intruding language, succeeded in ousting the native language.For example, Old English ey, tho, swuster and Øuuersdaei were gradually dropped in favour of Danish egg, they, sister and Thursday.

In some words the old native form has survived, but has adopted the signification attached in Scandinavian to the corresponding word. For example, the Old English word dream meaning "joy" assumed its modern meaning from Danish (Old Norse draumr, drom).

A number of legal terms were borrowed by English from Scandinavian quite early. The word law is itself Scandinavian and it means 'that which is laid down: Other examples of

Scandinavian terms associated with law which were borrowed by English are:

Husband	husbondi	= house - holder
Fellow	felagi	= one who lays down fé or money

The extensive Scandinavian settlement in England is reflected by the large number of places that bear Scandinavian names. There are hundreds of places like Crimsby, Whitby, Derby, Rugby, with names ending in the Danish word by, meaning 'farm' or 'town'. Other place names like Althorp, Bishopsthorp, Linthorpe contain the Scandinavian word-throp, meaning 'village'. A third group of place-names like Applethwaite, Cowperthwaite, Satterthwaite contain the word thwaite (an isolated piece of land). A fourth group bear names ending in toft (a piece of ground)- Brimtoft, Langtoft, Nortoft.

Scandinavian loan-words are of a purely popular character. This is clearly brought out by a comparison with the French words introduced into English later. French words represent the refined and aristocratic element in English whereas Scandinavian words are homely expressions for things and actions of everyday life, their character is utterly democratic. Their shortness agrees with the monosyllabic character of the native stock of words; consequently they are far felt as foreign elements than many French words.

The Scandinavian influence not only affected English vocabulary but extended to matters of grammar and syntax as well. For example, the Scandinavian pronominal forms: they, them, their, entered readily into the system of English pronouns

beginning with the same sound (that, this), and were felt to be more distinct than the old native forms which they replaced. Indeed the old native forms were liable to constant confusion with some forms of the singular, so that hē, him, hire (singular) and hīe, heom, heora (plural) could no longer be kept apart. In consequence, hīe, heom and heora were gradually replaced by they, them, and their, respectively:

Singular		*Plural*	
he	He	hīe	they
him	Him	heom	them
hire	Her	heora	their

Scandinavian also left its mark upon English in its extensive use of verbs with adverb/preposition of the type take up, take down, take in, take out, take off, take on, take from, and take to.

Otto Jespersen(1) notes that the omission of the relative pronoun in relative clauses (rare in Old English) and the retention or omission of the conjunction 'that' are in conformity with Danish usage; and that the rules for the use of shall and will in Middle English are much the same as in Scandinavian. To Scandinavian influence he also ascribes such syntactic features as the position of the Genitive case before its noun, where Old English placed it very often after it.

The Influence of Semitic Languages on English:

Important intellectually and, as a rule, of very early date are English loan-words from the two great Semitic Languages,

(1) Otto Jespersen, Growth and Structure of the English Language, 4th ed; pp. 82-3.

Arabic and Hebrew. It was through the medium of the Greek and Latin Bible versions that an important Hebrew vocabulary became European. Among words directly or indirectly borrowed from that language are abbot, amen, cherub, jubilee, Pharisee, rabbi, Sabbath, and Job's rather mysterious behemoth and leviathan.

In the Middle Ages the Arabs were dominant, and Arabic was one of the chief repositories of medical and scientific knowledge. From a very date Arabic words came into English, generally via the languages of southern Europe and often preserving the definite article al- Examples are admiral, arsenal, magazine, monsoon, simoom, alcohol, algebra, nadir, zenith, alembic, elixir, the last two originally borrowed by Arabic from Greek. Other examples of Arabic borrowings are:

Allâh	alcove	amber	assassin
Artichoc	cable	cheque	camphor
Canal	cipher	crimson	guittar
Logarithm	lute	macabre	masquerade
Racket	risk	saffron	spinach
Sugar	talisman	tamarind	tariff
Zenith			

Chapter 4
The Growth Of English

Important Contributors to English:

One of the most interesting factors in the growth of English is the contributions that have been made to its vocabulary and idiom by individual writers of outstanding importance. The translators of the Bible, Shakespeare, Milton, Scott, Carlyle, Dryden, Dr. Johnson and others have all contributed much to English. They have introduced an immense number of new words and expressions into the language, and have given literary currency to common words and phrases.

No work except Shakespeare's has had so much influence on English phraseology as the Authorized Version of the Bible (1611). This version, however, owes much to earlier translations, especially those of Tyndale (1526, 1530-31) and Coverdale (1535). To Tyndale, English owes such expressions as: long-suffering; peace-maker; stumbling-block; fatted calf; scapegoat; and mercy-seat. To Coverdale it owes lovingkindness, tender-mercy, valley of shadow of death, and avenger of blood. The authorized version gave English: city of refuge, howling wilderness, the fat of the land, white sepulchre, and many other familiar phrases.

Of Shakespeare, it may be safely said that his contribution to English phraseology is ten times greater than that of any other writer. From Hamlet come such phrases as this too solid flesh;

mind's eye; the primrose path; more honoured in the breach than the observance; O my prophetic soul; still harping on; the slings and arrows of outrageous fortune; there's the rub; the undiscovered country; to hold the mirror up to nature; very like a whale; a king of shreds and patches; not single spies, but in battalions; to cudgle one's brains; towering passion; stale, flat and unprofitable; to speak daggers; cruel only to be kind; sweets to the sweet; and many other expressions which form an integral part of everyday English.

Milton coined anarch and moon-struck, and originated such expressive phrases as darkness visible; tears such as angels weep; human face face divine; fresh woods and pastures new; the cricket on the hearth; dim religious light.

Scott introduced into literature a number of notable dialect words, such as riad and weird; gruesome; glamour; and stalwart; coined some effective compounds such as free-lance; red-handed; and Norse-man.

To Carlyle English owes such expressions as self-help, the dismal science, swanson, and bolt from the blue. He and Matthew Arnold between them succeeded in naturalizing Philistine in the sense of the German Philister. Arnold also gave "culture" its current sense.

The philosophical, social and political ideas of the late eighteenth century gave birth to such words as colonial and municipality (Burke), international and utilitarian (Bentham), pessimism (Coleridge), constituency (Macaulay), eugenics (Galton), agnostic (Huxley). The progress of industry and

science especially in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries have given English thousands of words ranging from Newton's centrifugal and centripetal (in the seventeenth century) to the modern television and electronic computer.

Growth from Within:

Quite apart from external influences, the vocabulary of a language, with consequent increase in power of expression, is enlarged by applying to the native stock the methods of 'compounding', and 'derivation'.

Modern English has inherited the Old English tradition (linguistic habit) of forming compounds and consequently we find such compounds as railway, sewing-machine, post-office, steamboat, one-way-street. However, the method of derivation has not played in English as important a part as the one it has played in German for example. The mixing with foreign languages and especially Latin, Greek and French has tended to cut short the growth of native derivatives and replace them by a mixed vocabulary, for example:

English	***Franco- Latin***
Rot	petrify
Ox (adjective)	bovine
Tree	arboreal
Nose	nasal
Town	urban

In other cases we have the choice of two or three words, with more or less subtle differentiation of meaning.

kingly (English)	fellow- feeling (English)
royal (French)	compassion (Latin)
regal (Latin)	sympathy (Greek)

English has, however, the unique power of transferring a word from one part of speech to another without change of form.

1. Nouns used as verbs:

   to stone a prophet

   to paper a room

   to ink one's fingers

   to toe the line

2. Abstract nouns used as verbs:

   to experience misfortunes

   to recondition a road

3. Verbs used as nouns:

   a shave

   a run

   a quiet read

   a good cry.

4. Nouns used freely as adjectives without change of form:

   headmaster

   gold watch

   railway-carriage

   weather-prophet

5. adjectives used as nouns:

   to eat greens

he has the blues

6. Ajectives used as verbs:

   to black boots

   to savage an opponent

7. prepositions used as verbs:

   We down tools

   We out our opponent

A curious source of new words is the process called back-formation. It is the inferring of a short word from a long one:

pea (pease)	sherry (sherris)
corp (corpse)	mike (microphone)
pub (public place)	cab (taxi-cab)

The practice of reducing long words to their initial syllable goes very far back in English. Perhaps the earliest example is gent which dates from the Wars of the Roses. Other clips have come into the language ever since, for example:

props (properties)	cab (riolet)
mutt (on-head)	mike (microphone)
fan (atic)	
vamp (ire)	
(cara) van	(in) flu (enza)
(omni) bus	
(de) tec (tive)	

Many words owe their modern form to folk-etymology, i.e. the popular tendency to give a more familiar form or sound to an unfamiliar word:

gilly-flower from the French giroflée livelihood for Middle English lifelode (the leading of one's life)

Besides, we have the words, of more or less echoic origin, (onomatopaeic) which the language seems to have created for its own use.

Scream	creech	squeak	squeal	shriek

Such words as the above are obviously suggestive of certain sounds though they actually do not reproduce them.

Many words of this kind are singularly expressive:

thud	For a heavy fall
throb	For the heart-beat
tang	Suggests metallic percussion
twang	For the bow-string vibration

Much depends on the quality of the vowel, e.g. there is marked difference between clink and clank, and between flip, flop and flap.

Other onomatopaeic words that are most expressive are:

splash	smash	ooze	shriek
sloppy	stop	slush	glide

English is very rich in compounds formed by mere juxtaposition. This mode of formation is common to the Germanic languages, but unfamiliar to the Romance languages, for example:

English	French
Windmill	moulin à vent
Warship	vaisseau de guerre
Rattlesnake	serpent à sonnettes
Woodcut	gravure sur bois

At the present day, in addition to English compounds from native word stock such as picture-house, sea-plane, science is incessantly manufacturing new compounds from Greek of the dynamo-psycho type.

The formation of compound adjectives dates from the time of Shakespeare, and the most picturesque examples of this type are often individual creations:

blood-stained	(Shakespeare)
cloud-capped	(Shakespeare)
ivy-mantled	(Gray)
sunlit	(Shelley)
Moonlit	(Tennyson)

This feature goes as far as even the conversion of phrases into adjectives in:

a matter-of- fact man　　an up-to- date idea

a go-ahead firm

A very large group of virtual compounds is supplied by the practice of combining a verb with a preposition or an adverb:

English	French
come in	entrer
go out	sortir
pick up	ramasser

Such combinations date from the Middle English period, and their ever-increasing variety of senses forms one of the great difficulties for foreign students. This element of English is being constantly reinforced from America, e.g.:

to give (a person) away

put in across

get away with it

Such combinations make sentences more expressive and the meaning more exact: "thieves broke in (into) the house" give a truer picture than "entered"; to "put up with" is more expressive than "bear".

Hundreds of English words have been formed from the names of men and places, and Greek mythology has been a fertile source of such words, for example:

martial	: Mars
jovial	: Jupiter of Jove
mercurial	: Mercury

Chapter 5
Modern English

The following presentation is based on the descriptive analysis of English in terms of its basic features of phonology, morphology, and syntax.

1. Phonology:[1]

Modern English may be adequately described in terms of these consonant phonemes:

	Bi-labial	*Labio-dental*	*Dental*	*Alveo-lar*	*Alveo-palatal*	*Velar*	*Glot-tal*
Stops	p b			t d		k g	
Affricates					tš dž		
Fricatives		f v	Ø đ	s z	š ž		h
Nasals	m			n		η	
Lateral				l			
Semi-vowels				r	y	w	

The vowel phonemes of Modern Enlish, from the point of view of a comparative study of Old and Modern English, may be presented as follows:

(1) For a more detailed presentation see "English Phonetics" by Albert G. Abdalla and Muhammad M. Ghaly. Anglo-Egyptian Bookshop 1962.

	Front	***Central***	***Back***
High	i		u
Mid.	e	ə	o
Low	æ	a	ɔ

The high central vowel (the barred i) has been left out because its occurrence in conversational speech is much less common than the other eight vowels. It is true that the two vowels/o/ and /ɔ /do not have a very high functional load, but they do occur in various other combinations in speech; with the semivowels and the mid central vowel/ ə /as second elements.

Besides these simple vowels, there are these other complex vowels (or diphthongs):

/iy/	as	in	seek	/siyk/
/ey/	as	in	came	/keym/
/ay/	as	in	eye	/ay/
/ɔy/	as	in	oil	/ɔyl/
/aw/	as	in	cow	/kaw/
/ow/	as	in	so	/sow/
/uw/	as	in	food	/fuwd

Although the differencs between the varieties of Modern English as spoken in Britain and the United States do not belong to the main discussion in this book, it is of importance here to point out that the following four centering diphthongs (or complex vowels) are of common occurrence in the standard dialect of Modern English in Britain:

/iə/	as	in	tear (n)	/tiə/
/eə/	as	in	tear (v)	/teə/
/ɔə/	as	in	tore	/tɔə/
/uə/	as	in	tour	/tuə/

Besides the consonants and vowels or the segmental phonemes, English speech has phonemes of stress and pitch (or suprasegmental phonemes).

There are four stress phonemes in English which may be represented in the following sentence:

"Bring me the book:"

bring miy đə buk/,

the weakest of the four stresses being left unmarked.

Four pitch levels are distinguished in conversational English, the highest of which occurring only in excited speech. Following are examples of the basic pitch levels of spoken English.

"I don't know."

/ay downt ´now/

Finally, there are four junctures in English speech: /+/ an open juncture as unknown /ən + nown/, and ↑ ↓→the three terminal junctures, which may be represented in the following:

"He said, 'This is Dick, the cook.'"

/hiy sed ↑ dis iz dik → dəkuk↓ /.

→indicating a sustained intonation,↑ indicating a rising intonation, and ↓ indicating a falling intonation.

2. Morphology:

Inflections:

Nouns:

The majority of English nouns may be represented by these three types:

Sg.	cat	dog	horse
Pl.	cats	dogs	horses
Pos.	cat's	dog's	horse's

The above list is intended to show that a noun in English has two forms, one for the singular, and another for the plural. The plural form presents a suffix which is either /-s/ in the case of cats, or/-z/ in the case of dogs, or still /iz/ in the case of horses. This suffix may be called the Plural morpheme, having the three members/ -z ~ -s ~ -iz/.

The plural morpheme is not the only suffix in the above list, since we have still another suffix morpheme indicating possession. This we may call the Genitive morpheme, and it also has these three members: /-z ~ -s~-iz/.

The Genitive morpheme is not so common as the plural morpheme in English. In fact, it is one of a very few plural suffix morphemes that have survived ever since the Old English period.

But the plural morpheme in English, unlike the Genitive morpheme, has more than three members:

/-in/ as in ox /ɔks/ oxen /ɔksin/

child/tšayld/children /tšildrin/

/-Ø/ (meaning no plural suffix at all) a zero element as is sheep /šiyp/ sheep/ šiyp/.

Other types of plural nouns in English may have internal vowel change:

foot /fut/	feet /fiyt/
mouse /maws/	mice /mays/

Some other plural nouns have the plural morpheme/ -z - iz/, but final consonants which are different from final consonants for the singular:

wife /wayf/	wives/ wayvz/
house/ haws/	houses/ hawziz

Other members of the plural morpheme in English may be seen in a limited group of nouns:

crisis /kraysis/	crises /kraysiyz/
criterion /kraytieryən/	criteria /kraytiərya/

B. Adjectives:

As distinct from nouns, adjectives in English may have /-er/ / ə/ -est /-ist/ as suffixes:

clean/kliyn/	cleaner/kliynər/	cleanest /kliynəst/
few /fyuw/	fewer/fyuwər/	fewest /fyuwist/
good /gud/	better /betər/	best/best/
much /mətš	more/ mɔər	most /mowst/

It is to be observed that the forms more, and most may come before some adjectives instead of the suffixes -er and -est.

C. Personal Pronouns:

The personal pronouns have preserved much of the complexity they had in Old English. In Modern English these pronouns may have three or four different forms:

I	me	my	mine
We	us	our	ours
You	you	your	yours
He	him	his	his
She	her	her	hers
It	it	its	
They	them	their	theirs

D. Verbs:

The English verbs have four forms:

Present	*Past*	
Stop	stopped	/stɒpt/
Rub	rubbed	/rəbd/
Wait	waited	/wéytid/

Past Participle	*Present Participle*	
Stoped	stopping	/stɔpiŋ/
Rubbed	rubbing	
Waited	waiting	

Present verbs have the morpheme/ -z ~ - s ~ - iz/ with the third person singular, which occurs with the great majority of verbs.

Past verbs have what may be called the Past morpheme, with these three main elements: /-d/, /-it/, /-id/; and the Past Participle

morpheme has also three members identical in form with the elements of the Past morpheme.

Irregular verbs have different shapes for both the Past and Past Participle morphemes. These are grouped by H.A. Gleason into 12 minor classes, and 41 subclasses. One of these subclasses is the very common English verb "be"[1]

Present Indicative	***Preterit (Past)***
I am	I was
You are	You were
He, She, It is	He, She, It was
We, They are	We, They were
Past Participle	***Present Participle***
Been	being

The group of verbs which are traditionally called auxiliaries: can, will, and similar verbs still present a separate category, which may best be described partly under morphology and partly under syntax.

E. Strees and Intonation:

Stress and intonation of morphemes form an important part of the morphology of Modern English, but will not be dealt with here since so little is known at present of their structural significance into the system of Old English.

F. Derivation:

A. Nouns:[2]

Some of derivational affixes (prefixes and suffixes) that occur with nouns are:

(1) H.A Gleason, An Introduction to Descriptive Linguistics, 1955.

(2) See "English Phonetics" by Albert G. Abdalla and Mohamed M. Ghaly, pp. 73 - 113.

-ness	/nəs/	Cleverness
- er	/ər/	adviser
- ity	/iti/	university
- hood	/hud/	boyhood
- dom	/dəm/	kingdom
- ation	/eyšən/	civilization
-th-	/Ø/	warmth
-ism	/izəm/	mechanism

Of these the first two seem to occur with more forms (nouns) in conversational English than the other suffixes.

B. Verbs:

The most common affixes with verbs are:

- ize	/ayz/	civilize
- ate	/eyt/	complicate
- en	/in/	brighten
- fy	/fay/	testify
a-	/ə/	assure
en-	/in/	ensure
re-	/ri/	return
con-	/k ən/	confirm
dis-	/dis/	disappear
mis-	/mis/	mistake

These are only some of the common affixes, some of which occur with nouns as well as with verbs:

cónduct (n)	condúct (v)
mistàke (n.v).	
Dístrust (n.v.)	

C. Adjectives:

The most common affixes are /-i/ -y as a suffix and /∂n/ on/ un- as a prefix : healthy, and unkind.

D. Compounds:

Compounds are usually nouns, and they usually have distinctive stress patterns; but their number has become much smaller in Modern English than in Old English.

3. Syntax:

In Modern English word order is of considerable importance to the syntactic structure of the language.

He can run

Can he run?

are a pair of English sentences whose meanings are different as a result of difference in word order accompanied by stress and intonation differences.

In the same way, the two sentences:

The cat saw the boy.

The boy saw the cat.

are two instances of differences in meaning resulting from differences of slot- filling in two sentences of identical syntactic structure.

It is this type of meaning difference due to different slot fillers that distinguishes the syntax of English as spoken today from that of Old English.

4. Vocabulary:

The study of the historical development of English vocabulary with its borrowings from other languages, especially Latin and French, is a very interesting study. Our main concern here will be the study of the linguistic changes that have occurred in the language for the last 15 hundred years. But a discussion of the many borrowings in English will be presented later on.

Chapter 6
Old English

The Beginning of Old English (Anglo-Saxon)

Indo -European is the ancestor of Old English as well as most of the languages of western Europe.This parent language developed into a number of closely related languages. For example, Italic was one of the dialects of Indo-European; and Latin developed as one of the dialects of Italic. Five modern languages are known to have descended from Latin. These are: Italian, French, Spanish, Portuguese, and Romanian.

Teutonic or Germanic was originally one of the dialects or branches of Indo-European. Then Teutonic develped into a number of dialects from which evolved the modern Germanic languages. West Teutonic (or Germanic) divided into a number of dialects, chief of which are German, Dutch, and Old English.

The Celts are the First people in Britain about whose knowledge we have some historical information. Celtic is an Indo-European language which was spoken by the Celts, and which is still spoken by a number of people in Cornwall the southern most of Britain.

The other language that was spoken in England before English was Latin which remained the dominant language for four centuries. But Latin did not replace Celtic as the language of the people of Britain. In fact, Celtic survived the Roman and Teutonic invasions.

The history of English, then begins with the invasions of the Jutes, Saxons, and Angles about the middle of the fifth century. The Jutes came first and occupied Kent; the Saxons occupied practically all of England south of the Thames, with the exception of Cornwall which remained in the hands of the Celts. The Saxons also occupied a portion of England north of the Thames; and the Angles occupied the remaining parts, with the exception of the West Coast.

English (Englisc), was the language of the invaders; and the land they occupied came to be called after them, the land of the Angles, or Engla-land.

It is usual, in historical linguistics, to divide the history of a language into different periods. Such divisions do not accurately reflect the actual facts of linguistic change, since such a change is slow and gradual. But these divisions are based on the observations of the language historians that some linguistic features are clearly seen at a specific period and absent in another and this may be taken as enough justification for drawing a line between periods. The history of English has been divided into three periods:

Old Enlish	450 - 1150
Middle English	1150 - 1500
Modern English	1500 - the present

There were four main dialects of Old English: Northumbrian, Mercian, Kentish, and West Saxon. The speech of the Jutes became the Kentish dialect of Old English, and the principal dialect of Saxon was the West Saxon. The main dialect of the

Anglians was the Mercian dialect. It was this Mercian dialect of Old English that developed into the Middle dialect of Middle English. One branch of this Middle dialect of Middle English, the East Middle dialect, is the ancestor of Modern Standard English.

The Spelling System

Old English had some letters that are no longer used in the writing system of Modern English. In printed texts, however, a modern letter may be substituted for the old one. This is the case with the letter w, which has replaced the letter (wynn) in the printed texts of Old English. The letters of Old English alphabet which are no longer in use are:

O.E. Letter (s)	*Mn. E. Letter (s)*	*Phonetic Symbol*
Ø (theta)	th	[Ø, đ]
d (thorn)	th	[Ø, đ]
æ (digraph)	a	[æ]

It is to be noted that the two Old Enlish letters Ø and đ like Modern English the, were used for two distinct sounds [Ø], and [đ].

Some letters, now used in the English alphabet, were not known by the Old English writers. These are:

Mn. E.Letter (s)	*O.E. Letter (s)*	*Phonnetic Symbol*
J	cg	[dž]
Q	c,k	[k]
V	f	[v]
Z	s	[z]

The letter k was used only very rarely in Old English texts, and the letter y was used as a symbol for a vowel, and not for the semivowel /y/ of Modern English. The combination sc has been interpreted by scholars of Old English to have the phonetic value [š] which is represented in the alphabet of Modern English by sh.

Phonology:

Consonants:

Old English is now being studied and taught from manuscripts that carry to us the speech of the people who mastered it about a thousand years ago. Thus, any effort at drawing phonemic conclusions about the language by modern linguists will only achieve the possible: drawing rough conclusions about the sound of the language, and then interpreting these conclusions in the light of modern phonemic theory. This is what Hockett has done on the basis of the findings of what scholarship has contributed to the study of Old English[1]

The following table of consonant phonemes of Old English is based mainly on Hockett's:

	Bi-labial	***Labio-dental***	***Dental***	***Alveo-lar***	***Alveo-palatal***	***Velar***	***Glot-tal***
Stops	p b			t d		k g	
Affricates					tš dž		

(1) Charles. F. Hockett, A Course in Modern Linguistics, Macmillan, 1958, p. 376.

Fricatives		f	Ø	s	š	x g	h
Nasals	m			n		η	
Lateral				l			
Trill				r			
Semi-vowels					y	w	

Compared with Modern English consonants, the consonant phonemes of Old English presented these differences:

1. Old English / p t k b d t š d ž m l w y / were pronounced approximately as in Modern English.
2. / g / like [g] in Modern English ,

   [g] like غ in Arabic

   /f/ with two elements: [f], [v] when /f/ occurred between vowels

   /Ø/ with two elements: [Ø], [đ] when between vowels.

   /s/ having two elements: [s] and [z] between vowels.

   /x/ pronounced [x] (like Arabic خ)

   /n/ with two elements:

   [n] and [η] before velars.
3. /r/ was a trill produced as the tip of the tongue makes rapid successive taps against the alveolar ridge. This is more like Arabic /r/ than the fricative / r/ of Britain or retroflex / r / of the United States.

One feature of old English consonants, which has disappeared in Modern English, is gemination, or tashdîd in Arabic. This may be represented by the two forms:

Winnan	"strive, fight"	[winnan]
Bedd	"bed"	[bedd]

Although gemination, or tashdîd has disappeared from Modern English, the language has still double consonants, especially in compound word: pen-knife, book-case.

Examples of some of the clusters (groups of two consonants) which occurred at the beginning of words in Old English, but which no longer occur in Modern English are;

hl	[xl]	hlaf	"loaf, bread"[1].
hr	[xr]	hring	"ring"
hn	[xn]	hnappian	"to nap, to sleep".
cn	[kn]	cniht	"youth" (cf. knight [nayt]).
gn	[gn]	gnæt	"gnat, insect".
wr	[wr]	writan	"write, copy".
wl	[wl]	wlite	"brightness, beauty".

Vowels:

The vowel phonemes of Old English may be presented, only with approximate accuracy, in the following table:

	Front		***Central***	***Back***
	Rounded	***Unrounded***		
High	y	i		u
Mid.		e	ə	
Low		æ	a	

The vowels of Old English differ from the vowels of Modern English mainly in these respects;

(1) The letter h was sometimes pronounced [h] and, sometimes [x].

1- The high front rounded vowel / y / has disappeared from Modern English. In Old English it was of common occurrence:

Fyllan	/fyllan/	"to fill"
Øynne	/Øynne/	"thin"
Cynn	/kynn/	"kin, family"

2- The diphthongal quality of complex vowels in Modern English is not clear in Old English. Six of the above eight vowels had long counterparts: i : y : e : æ : a: u:. The mid central vowel / ∂ / had no long counterpart, and the low back vowel / ɔ/ also had no long counterpart. There was, however, a long mid back vowel / o:/. The long vowel / y : / is respresented by these two Old English words:

/hy: d/	hyd	"hide, skin"
/fy:r/	fyr	"fire"

Stress and Intonation:

Stress in Old English occurred on the first vowel, unless the vowel occurrd in a prefix.

As regards intonation, nothing has been preserved in records of Old English about it.

Phonetic Notation:

The following passage from the Bible (Lu 10 : 30 - 32) is given first in the Old English spelling followed by a literal translation, and then comes the Old English pronunciation in phonetic notation[(1)].

(1) Moore and M. Markwardt, Historical Outline of English Sounds and Inflections, Ann Arbor, 1927. pp. 20-21.

In the phonetic notation vowel length is marked by:

1- /Øā gebyrde hit Øæt sum Sācerd fērde/.

(Then happened it that a certain priest went).

/Øā: Yeb-Yrede hit Øæt sum as: kerd fe:rde/.

2- /on Øām ilcan wege; and Øā hē Øæt geseah/.

(on the same way; and when he that saw).

/ɔn Øa: m ilkan weye; and Øa: he: Øæt yesæəx/.

3- /hē hine forbeah/.

(he from - him turned - a way)

/he: hine fɔrbæ.: ə x/

4- /And eal swā sē dīacon, Øā hē wæs wiØ/

(And also the deacon, when was by)

/and æel swa: se: dīakɔn Øa : he : was wiØ/

5- /Øā stōwe and Øæt geseah, hē hine ēac forbēah/.

(The place and that saw, he from-him also turned-away).

/Øa : sto : we and Øæt yesæəx he: hine æ : ək fɔrbæ: əx/ .

Morphology and Syntax:

1. Old English Inflections;

Old English was a highly inflectional language; and the history of English is sometimes summarized as the history of how these inflections have disappeared, until they are almost completely lost to Modern English.

1. Nouns:

Old English nouns were inflected for number and case. They had two numbers: singular and plural, and four cases. These four cases were:

Nominative: indicating that the noun is subject.

Accusative: when the noun is an object.

Genitive: usually for possession.

Dative: usually indicating the meaning of "to" = (object of a preposition).

Not all nouns of Old English were inflected or (declined) for these four cases in the same way. They generally fell into at least three main groups or declensions in the West Saxon dialect.

Following are three examples of noun declensions in Old English:

	Singular	
Nom.	Stān "stone"	hunt-a "hunter"
Acc.	Stān	hunt-an
Gen.	Stān-es	hunt-an
Dat.	Stān-e	hunt-an
	Plural	
Nom.	Stān-as	hunt-a
Acc.	Stān-as	hunt-an
Gen.	Stān-a	hunt-ena
Dat.	Stān-um	hunt-um

Singular	
Nom.	Fōt
Acc.	Fōt
Gen.	Fōtes
Dat.	Fēt
Plural	
Nom.	Fēt
Acc.	Fēt
Gen.	fōt-a
Dat.	fōt-um

It is clear from these different forms that all nouns in Old English had-um as a suffix for plural noun in the Dative case, that most nouns had-es as the suffix for the Genitive Singular, and - e for the Dative Singular.

The form fōt is of special importance, since it has only three suffixes for the eight forms of the singular and plural and because of the vowel difference between the singular and plural. This difference is a qualitative difference: instead of the vowel o in the singular we have the vowel e for the plural. It is true that these vowels were pronounced differently in Old English from their pronunciation in Modern English, but the spelling is nearly the same. The two forms foot and feet in Modern English are not different due to a difference in the suffixes that occur with each form, but only due to a difference between the two vowels.

Gender:

Old English nouns were either masculine, feminine, or neuter. This did not always conform to our usual distinctions based on

sex; and this is what is called grammatical gender. Differences of gender based largely on distinctions between male and female individuals are called natural gender. Thus, Old English nouns had what we call grammatical gender while Modern English nouns are distinguished on the basis of natural gender.

The three Old English words stān, hunta, and fōr were all masculine nouns, irrespective of the fact that two of them denote inanimate objects, and only one of them (hunta) stands for an animate being. In Modern English two of them are neuter, and one of them "hunter" is masculine. The gender signal in Modern English is, in this case, the use of the pronoun "it" as a substitute for "stone", and "foot", and "he" or "him" When we talk about "hunter".

2. Adjectives

Adjectives in Modern English have lost their inflections to a degree not yet reached by nouns. Nouns in Modern English take suffixes for the genitive (-'s) as well as for the plural; but adjectives do not. In Old English, however, both the nouns and adjectives usually had the same number of cases. In fact, the case system of the adjectives in Old English was more complex than the case system for the nouns. The accusative singular case for some adjectives, for example, was different from the nominative, whereas the two cases were identical for most nouns.

One example will seem to be enough for our purposes here:

	Singular
Nom.	Gōd "good"
Acc.	Gōd-ne
Gen.	Gōd-es
Dat.	Gōd-um
Instr.	Gōd-e
	Plural
Nom.	Gōd-e
Acc.	Gōd-e
Gen.	Gōd ra
Dat.	Gōd-um

This example further shows that a singular adjective in Old English may have a fifth case (instrumental case), which does not usually occur for Old English nouns. Another feature of the adjectives in Old English was that an adjective had three distinctive forms of the masculine, feminine, and neuter respectively. When the adjective occurred with a masculine noun it had a certain form different from that occurring with a feminine noun, or a neuter noun.

3. Personal Pronouns:

Pronouns have a complex case system in Modern English; but in Old English they were still more complex. Today pronouns have one form for the singular and another for the plural. In Old English a pronoun had three distinct forms: one for the singular, another for the plural, and a third for the dual (مثنى), as we have in Arabic.

Although the dual form has disappeared in Modern English, most of the complexities of the case system in Old English have been preserved.

Following is the declension of the first person in Old English:

	Singular
Nom.	Ic "I"
Acc.	Mē "me"
Gen.	Mīn "mine"
Dat.	Mē "to me"
	Plural
Nom.	Wit "we two"
Acc.	Unc "us two"
Gen.	Uncer "of us two"
Dat.	Ūs "to us two"
	Plural
Nom.	Wē "we"
Acc.	Ūs "us"
Gen.	Ūre "our"
Dat.	Ūs "to us"

The second and third persons had similar forms for all the cases mentioned above, and they had also forms for the dual.

4. The Definite Article:

The definite article had cases in Old English, and it had three different forms: one for the masculine, another for the feminine, and a third for the neuter. These three distinct forms, as well as

the four cases, have been lost to Modern English, but the syntactic uses have expanded. These are the three different forms for the masculine, feminine, and neuter that the definite article had in Old English:

	Singular			*Plural*
	Masculine	***Feminine***	***Neuter***	
Nom.	Se	sēo	Øǣt	Øā
Acc.	Øǣs	Øǣre	Øǣs	Øāra
Gen.	Øǣm	Øǣre	Øǣm	Øǣm
Dat.	Øone	Øā	Øǣt	Øā
Instr.	Øon		Øon	

The neuter form of the Definite articler in Old English Øǣt is similar in sound and shape to Modern English that, which is now used as a demonstrative pronoun in some cases and a relative pronoun in others.

In Old English the definite article had only one form for the plural (which was declined to the different cases), and this form was Øa, which is again similar to Modern English the.

5. verbs:

Old English verbs have been traditionally divided into two main groups: Strong verbs, and Weak verbs. This terminology is sometimes applied to Modern English. The strong (irregular) verbs indicate change of tense by a change of the vowel in the middle of the verb. Thus a verb like drink, drank, drunk may sometimes be called a strong verb. Other verbs that have -d, -t, or -ed as suffixes to past forms are called weak (regular): e.g. walk, walked, walked.

In all Periods of English, the group of weak verbs has been larger than the other group. Strong verbs were about three hundred in the Old English period, and now they are only about one fifth of their number a thousand years ago.

Old English strong verbs are usually divided into seven classes, and each verb has four main parts: present, past or preterit (which has one form for the singular and another form for the plural), and past participle.

The four "parts" of some strong vrebs in Old English may be represented by the following examples. With the Old English forms are given the corresponding forms of Mobern English.

	Present	***Past (Singular)***	***Past (Plural)***	***Past (Plural)***
1	Writān	wrāt	writon	writen
2	Flēōgan	flēōg	flugon	flogen
3	Helpan	healp	hulpon	holpen
4	Beran	bær	bæron	boren
5	Cuman	cōm	cōmon	cumen
6	Scacan	scōc	scōcon	scacen
7	Healdan	hēold	hēoldon	heolden

Modern English

Present	***Past***	***Past Participle***
Write	Wrote	written
fly	flew	flown
help	helped	helped
bear	bore	born

Present	Past	Past Participle
come	came	come
shake	shook	shaken
hold	held	held

In spite of the many differences in pronunciation between Old English and Modern English,the relationships between Old and Modern forms are readily recognizable from the above examples. All seven verbs have three parts in Modern English instead of the four parts of Old English This is because Modern English has one form for the singular and plural past tense, not two, The Old English verb "helpan" is no longer a "strong" verb as it was in Old English, and is now a "weak" or "regular" verb, having the past and past participle with the suffix ed[-t] like talked and similar verbs, The verd "healdan" has now two parts and not three, with one form for both the past and past participle.

In Old English weak verbs had the past with the suffix -d or-te [-de] or [-te], and the past participle with -d or -t, In Mobern English "weak" end, in both the past and past participle, in -d, ed, or -t [-d], [-id], or [-t].

Old English weak verbs may be represented by the following examples:

Old English

Present	Past	Past Participle
hīeran	hiērde	hiēred
Iufian	Iufode	Iufod
habban	hæfde	hæfd

Modern English

Present	*Past*	*Past Participle*
hear	heard	heard
love	loved	loved
have	had	had

Beside strong verbs (which usually had four different forms) and weak verbs (which usually had three different forms), Old English had other types of verbs, most important of which is beon. Beon is the ancestor of the Modern English verd "be". In Old English this verb was actually a combination of parts from three distinct verbs; the infinitives of these verbs being beon, is, and wesan. In Modern English the verb "to be" has three different forms for the present indicative; am, is, and are, and two forms for the past indicative: was, and were. This is why the verb "to be", together with other similar verbs, have been called anomalous or composite verbs.

II. Derivation in Old English:

Old English presents a more complex system of affixation and compounding than Modern English; but a great number of the Old Erglish affixes are still now in use, although Modern English has lost most of the compound words that were characteristic of Old English.

These are some of the affixes and compounds that were common to Old English:

1. Nouns

With nouns, suffixes were much more common than perfixes:

-dōm	as in cyningdōm	"kingdom"
-ere	as in fiscere	"fisher, fisherman"
-hād	as in cildhād	"childhood"
-ung	as in dagung	"dawn"
-scipe	as in freōndscipe	"friendship"
-nes	as in mōdignes	"generosity"
-un	as in unmōd	"despair"

Eārhring	"earring"
Ealohūs	"ale house"
Hwalweg	"whaleway, sea"
Dægred	"day + red = dawn"
Ofermod	"pride"

2. Adjectives:

-ig	as in	mōdig	"bold"
-lic	as in	mōdiglic	"generous"
-full	as in	mōdfull	"proud"
-leas	as in	mōdleas	"spiritless"
-isc	as in	folcisc	"popular"

swīømod "strong + heart, courage = resolute"

gūbmōd "war + heart, courage = warlike"

mōdleōf "heart, courage + beloved = dear"

3. Verbs:

There was a great number of prefixes that occurred with Old English verbs, the commonest of these prefixes being:

Prefix	*Verb*	*Meaning*
a-	a-settan	"to place"
	settan	"to set"
be-	be-gān	"to practise"
	gān	"to go"
for-	for-dōn	"to destroy"
	dōn	"to do"
fore-	fore-witan	"to foreknow"
	witan	"to know"
ge-	ge-settan	"to people, garrison"
	settan	"to set"
mis-	mis-faran	"go astray"
	faran	"to go"
of-	of-settan	"to afflict"
	settan	"to set"
ofer-	ofer-cuman	"to overcome"
	cuman	"to come"
on-	on-cnāwan	"to acknowledge"
	cnāwan	"to know"
to-	tō-faran	"to separate"
	faran	"to go"
under-	under-sceōtan	"to support"
	sceōtan	"to shoot"
wiø	wiø-standan	"to withstand, resist"
	standan	"to stand"

Some of these prefixes are still to be found in Modern English: for, fore-, mis-, over-, and under- are still used with varying degrees of frequency,

Old English Syntax:

In Old English inflections had a very important function: a word in Old English could be recognized as a noun from its form, and not from the context it occurred in. The word water was always a neuter noun, and its inflections were the same as for the other neuter nouns; but the same word "water" may shift from one class to another as can be seen from the following examples:

1. I drink water.

2. The gardener watered the plants yesterday.

3. Water flowers look pretty.

Thus with the loss of inflections there has developed in English the syntactic feature of word order. Accordingly, a word in Modern English usually fills a certain spot, and the moment the word occurs in another spot, is it fulfilling another function and belongs to another class of words.

A typical passage of Old English prose follows. It is part of Alfred's preface to his tanslation of the Pastoral Care. In this selection the King expresses his anxiety over the fact that so much of the learning of previous times had been destroyed as a result of the Danish invasions. He thinks that the scholars of earlier times did not take an interest in translation, because they felt that learning would increase with the study of languages.

1. øā ic øā đis eall gemunde, øa wundrade ic

When I then this all remembered, then wondered I.

2. swīđe swīđe Øāra gōdena wiōtona øe giu wǣron.

exceedingly of the good wise men who formely were.

3. giond Angelcynn, ond øā bēc ealla be fullan.

throughout English, and the books all completely.

4. geliornod hæfdon, øæt hiē hiora øā nænne.

learned had, that they of them then no.

5. dǣl noldon on hiora āgen geđiode wendan.

part did not their own languages to turn.

1. The first line starts with øā, which sometimes means "when" and sometimes "then" in Modern English. The subject <u>ic</u> comes before the verb gemunde; "remembered", as well as before the object đis eall; and this is the ususl position of the noun as subject in the syntax of Modern English. However, we find <u>ic</u> coming after verb wundrade "wondered" in the following clause on the same line.

The construction đis eall is characteristic of Old English, and can be rendered into Modern with the use of one of the function words (usually called a preposition):"all of this". The constant use of function words like of, to, from, etc. is one of the main differences between the syntax of Old English and the syntax of Modern English.

2. Swiđe swiđe is aređuplication of the same adverb swiđe, which means "very" The whole phrase øara godena wiotona is in the genitive case after the verb wundrian "to wonder". It was characteristic of verbs in Old English that they would "govern"

the nouns and adjectives coming after them, together with the article or pronoun. Sometimes the verb must be followed by these in the dative case; and sometimes in the genitive (as in the present construction).

øāra is the definite article "the" in the plural genitive case, which is now replaced by the phrase" of the", "of" being the function word indicating the genitive in Modern English. Gōdena is as adjective in the genitive case, and plural number. In Modern English adjectives are no longer inflected for case or number: good is used both as singular and plural.

Wiotona is derived from the verb witan "to know", and is here a noun inflected for number and case; it is a genitive plural.

The verb wāeron is similar in form to the verb "were" in Modern English: but the verb "were" has lost the inflectional suffix-on, which occurred with some plural English verbs in the past indicative.

3. In the third line the word bēc was a plural form meaning "books" It is to be noticed that this plural form bēc has not survived in Modern English as has the form fet in Old English, which has changed into Modern English to feet/fiyt/.

Again "all" in Modern English would come before "books" instead of after it, as we see in Old English construction bēc ealla.

4. The verb hæfdon is the past plural form of the Old English verb habban "to have". It is to be observed here that this very common English verb "have" has lost the plural inflection of the

past-on, but it still preserves two different forms for the present indicative: has and have.

The inflected form of the pronoun: hiora is now no longer used, and instead we have the pronoun them preceded by the function word of. Although this has meant the loss of the inflection for the genitive here, it is still a characteristic feature of Modern English that the pronouns have preserved most of the inflectional forms that they had centuries ago.

5. The form noldon was a past plural form (in Old English) of the verb nyllan = ne willan. The verb willan in Old English meant "to wish", although sometimes it had the meaning of "to be about to". Its use as an "auxiliary" to indicate the use of the function word "did" is again characteristic only of Modern English.

To sum up, the syntactic differences between Old English and Modern English may be stated briefly as follows:

1. Features which do not occur in Modern English:

   a) The dual number in pronouns.

   b) Distinctions between "strong" and "weak" classes in adjectives.

   c) Loss of inflections for number (singular and plural), Gender, (masculine, feminine, and neuter), and case in adjectives and articles.

2. Features still found in Modern English:

   a) The genitive case in nouns; e.g. the boy's book. Nouns also have singular and plural forms.

b) The 3rd person present indicative of verbs: e.g. the boy reads the book.

Verbs as a whole, are inflected for the past, past participle, and present participle.

c) The inflected personal pronouns. These are inflected for:

1. Case: subject, object, genitive, possessive.

   We us our ours

2. Number: We have different forms for the singular and plural, with the exception of the 2nd person which has only one form for both: you.

3. Gender: this is found only in the 3rd person personal pronouns (singular): he, she, and it. Gender here is "natural" rather than "grammatical".

d)Adjectives are still inflected for the comparative and superlative forms: better, and best.

3. Features developed in Modern English:

a) Frequent use of passive voice, and impersonal constructions:

i.e. beginning with it, and there.

d) The use of auxiliaries for the future, perfect, progressive(or continuous) tenses.

c) The appearance of "function" words:

He <u>did</u> not come yesterday.

d) The fixed word order replacing inflections as an important syntactic feature.

Vocabulary:

During its early period, the English language came in contact with three other languages, the languages of the Celts, the Romans and the Scandinavians. Each of these languages had an influence on the vocabulary of Old English.

1. The Celtic Influence:

The Celtic language has left very little influence on Old English. This may be seen chiefly in place names. The words Kent and Cornwall were originally Celtic words. The first element in each of the following place names is taken from Celtic: Devonshire, Winchester, Salisbury, and Exeter. The Thames is a Celtic river name, and the following words originally meant in Celtic "river", or "water" Avon, Exe, and Dover.

The number of Celtic words that entered Old English, besides these place names, was very small. Such words like binn (basket, bin), cumb (valley) and cross came into English through Celtic.

The number of Celtic words that entered Old English must have been greater than the very few items mentioned above, but such borrowings must have disappeared in the course of time through lack of intercultural communication. The Celts were a conquered people, and did not possess, in the eyes of the Germanic tribes, a superior culture. This may explain the fact that even in the Old English period Latin had a more pronounced influence on the language. The Romans conquered England and brought with them a decidedly higher culture than that attained

by the native population. Thus the Celtic language may be considerd as the language with the least influence on Old English.

2. The Latin Influence:

The second great influence exerted on Old English was that of Latin. It began long before the Angles, Jutes, and Saxons came to England, and continued for many centuries after their conquest of England. While these tribes were still on the continent, they had various contacts with the Romans, from whose civilization they learned much and from whose language they borrowed a number of Latin words. When they settled in England, these tribes took many words from Latin through Celtic. Later on, with the growth of the Christian influence on the island, there was extensive borrowing from Latin into English.

Thus we may speak of three distinct occasions for loan words from Latin into English during the Old English period:

1. The first (continental) period.
2. The second period (through Celtic).
3. The third period (with the spread of Christianity).

It is not always possible to assign a word to a given period, but such a process is necessary if our study of the history of language is to achieve some degree of precision and accuracy. There are various criteria by which a word or a group of words is known to belong to a particular period of the history of a language. One of the most important criteria for deciding the

particular date of a word or a group of words is the Phonetic criterion. Through the study of the phonetic form of a word or a group of words in a family of related languages, it is possible to assign the word or group of words to the period in which it has been borrowed, the changes which take place in the sounds of a language can often be dated with relative definiteness, and the presence or absence of these changes in a borrowed word is an important test of age.

In the study of borrowings into Old English, some of the phonetic criteria used are:

1. Mutation.

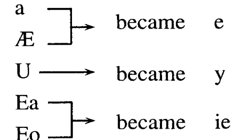
2. Diphthongization.

By mutation is meant the alteration or change which occurs to some stressed vowels and diphthongs, Diphthongization is the change of a stressed vowel into a diphthong.

1. Mutation:

In Old English, as in most Teutonic languages, there occurred a change known as i-umlaut (= alteration of sound). This change affected some stressed vowels and diphthongs, like æ, a, o, u, eo, and io, when they were followed in the next syllable by an i or j.

Under such circumstances the following changes took place:



So, the change from early Old English to the Old English we study (the seventh century and after) may be represented by the following two words:

Early O. E.	O.E.	Modern.E.
* bankiz	benc	bench
* musiz	mȳs	mice

Because this change took place in English during the seventh century, we may conclude that a word borrowed from Latin after the seventh century would not show this mutation or vowel change. But if it is borrowed before the seventh century, it must have undergone that mutation or vowel change.

So the word:

Early O.E.	O.E.
* munit	mynet

which has this vowel change must have been borrowed from Latin moneta "money" into old English during or before the seventh century. In Old English mynet meant "coin", and the word mint "the place where coins are made" in Modern English comes down from it.

2. Diphthongization:

Another change which helps us in dating borrowed words into Old English from Latin is diphthongization.

According to this type of linguistic change, some stressed vowels in Old English were preceded by some palatal consonants, like č [tš] or sc [š]:

(*) Is a mark that the word is not found in the historical records, and is only reconstructed by historians of language. (see p.g 120).

æ	Became	ea
e	Became	ie

So the change from early Old English to the language that we find in the historical records (the seventh century and later) may be represented by these froms:

Early O.E.	O.E.	Modern.E.
* cæster	ceaster	city
* sceld	scield	shield

Then a word borrowed into Old English from Latin after this change had taken place does not show diphthongization. But words borrowed before this change must have undergone diphthogization.

Thus the word:

Early O.E.	O.E.	Modern.E.
* cæsi	ceasi	cheese

which has diphthongization must have been borrowed from Latin caseus into Old English earlier than the seventh century.

Actually, diphthongization took place in early Old English before mutation. So, as expected, we find that the word ceasi becomes ciese, which is the form the word had in Old English after mutation. So, the Old English word ciese "cheese" is an example of the two types of linguistic change that occurred in early Old English; first, diphthongization, and then mutation. In fact, the word ciese was among the first borrowings from Latin, and came into Teutonic (or Germanic) or early Old English during the first or continental period.

a) The First Period:

The words borrowed into English during this period came when the Teutonic tribes (Angles, Saxon and Jutes) were still in Europe before invading Britain. At least fifty words from Latin are known with fair certainty to have entered English in this period.

Such words belong to this continental period:

weal	"wall"	stræt	"street"
mīl	"mile"	cirice	"church
biscop	"bishop"	wīn	""wine"
cīese	"cheese"	pipor	"pepper
cealc	"chalk"	mūl	"mule"

Here also belong such words: cēāp, which meant "a bargain" in old English, and which is still found in Modern English in the word cheap, and in the first part of the word chapman.

b) The Second Period:

The number of the Latin words that entered Old English through Celtic was very small, not more than fifteen words in all. It is probable that Latin as a spoken language did not survive the end of the Roman rule in Britain. There was thus little likelihood for a direct contact between Latin and Old English in England. Such Latin words as could have come into Old English must have been borrowed through Celtic. In fact, the Celts had borrowed many words from Latin, the number of such words being thought as over six hundred. However, these words did not find their way into English, and this is understandable in the

light of the fact that very few words entered Old English from the Celtic language itself.

The word ceaster is one of the words that came into Old English from Latin through Celtic, although it did not exist in Celtic itself. This word is derived from the Latin castra "camp"; but in Old English it meant a town or an enclosure. It is the second element in such words: Manchester, winchester, and Lancaster.

Other words that came from Latin into Old English through Celtic are:

O.E.	Latin
wīc "village"	vicus
munt "mountain"	mons
port "harbour, gate, town"	portus

c) The Third Period:

The Latin influence on Old English is most clearly seen when Britain became a Christian country. St. Augustine landed in Kent; and, within seven years of his arrival all the people of Kent had become Christian. The spread of the new religion to other parts of England was a gradual process during the following hundred years.

With the introduction of Christianity many churches were built, and many schools were attached to the majority of these churches. Latin was the language of learning in these schools, and church services were also conducted in Latin.

The majority of Old English words dealing with the chruch services were adopted during this period:

alter	candle	disciple	martyr	mass
minster	noon	nun	offer	organ
pope	priest	psalm	shrine	temple

Some of the words that were adopted in the domestic life of the people are;

cap	sock	silk	purple	chest
mat	cemes "shirt"	pear	radish	cook
pine	balsam	lily	plant	
school	master	verse	meter	
anchor	fever	place	sponge	elephant
circle	legion	giant	consul	talent

All of these words entered Old English when there was religious zeal and the church was flourishing. But when religion and learning showed signs of decline the number of Latin words in Old English became extremely small. King Alfred tried for twenty years to restore learning, and he built many churches. But it was in the second half of the tenth century that a religious reformation actually took place under King Edgar.

The Latin words borrowed in this case were of a less popular character and usually expressed ideas of a scientific nature. Most of these words also dealt with religious matters.

idol	cell	creed	collect	demon
apostle	prophet			
history	paper	title		

cucumber	ginger	camel	scorpion	tiger
cancer	paralysis	plaster		

As a result of the spread of Christianity in England about 450 Latin words appeared in English writings before the end of the Old English period. A great number of these were incorporated in the language and occurred with inflected forms or in derived new forms.

The word planta came into English from Latin with the meaning "plant"; but it soon gave rise to the inflectional form, the infinitive plantian "to plant" with the inflectional suffix for the infinitive - ian. We also find the word martyr which came into the language from Latin occurring with Old English suffixes derivation:

martyrdom martyrhard martyrung

all of which are "abstract" nouns.

Old English words were also used to express new ideas that came with Christianity. Prophet was sometimes called witega (wise one), and martyr sometimes expressed as halga (holy one). The Latin word baptizare was not borrowed into Old English, and the native words fullian (originally meaning "to consecrate") was used instead. This derivative form entered into numerous compounds:

fulluht-tid	"baptismal vow"
fulluht-nama	"Christian name"
fulluht-had	"baptism time"

3. Scandinavian Borrowings:

Between 787 and 1014, England was invaded by the Scandinavian tribes, whose king became king of England in 1014 and went on ruling there for 25 years. With these invasions, came the settlement of Scandinavians in Britain, and many Scandinavian words entered the English language at the end of the old English period.

The influence of the Scandinavian languages on English was very great. Up until the Norman Conquest the Scandinavian languages in England were constantly re-inforced by the steady stream of trade and conquest. This may account for the fact that 14000 places in England bear Scandinavian names and the fact that about a 1000 words from Scandinavian origin are still to be found in Modern Standard English.

The phonology Criterion:

The most reliable criterion for deciding whether a word was borrowed from any of the Scandinavian languages into Old English is the phonetic shape of the words compared. One of the tests applied is the distinction between the consonant cluster sk [sk] or the consonant sh [š].

In Old English the consonant cluster [sk] was simplified to one palatal consonant [š], written sc in Old English texts. Thus words like ship, shall, and fish are native to English and words like sky, skin and skill are borrowings from the Scandinavian languages into Old English. This also shows us how the two words shirt and skirt have come to be differentiated in meaning in Modern English, while they had the same meaning in the past

in the two languages; Old English, and Old Norse (Old Scandinavian).

Old English: scyrte [š] "shirt" Old Norse: skyrta [sk] "shirt".

The g and k consonants (phonetically [g] and [k] respectively in such present - day English words as ; kid [kid], get [get], and give [giv]) may indicate a Scandinavian influence on the phonology of Old English. In Old English these words had the first consonant in [tš] instead of [k] and in [y] instead of [g].

Another phonological test by which we differentiate words of Old English origin from words of Old Scandinavian origin is the distinction between ay [ey] and o [ow] in words which have similar or identical meanings in Modern English. This is due to the fact in the pre-historic times, Old English and Old Scandinavian had the same vowel ai in these words; but this vowel developed differently in each language. In Old English, it became ā while it became e in Old Scandinavian. In Modern English ā has become [ow]. This may be illustrated by the following words:

from Old Scandinavian		***from Old English***	
nay	[ney]	no	[now]
hale	[heyl]	whole	[howl]

In some cases an Old English word took over the meaning of the Scandinavian word, and its original meaning has been lost. This is what happened to these two words; gift, and plough.

The first word gift, meant in Old English "the money paid to a wife before marriage", but in Old Scandinavian it meant "a gift, present"; and this meaning in Scandinavian has been dropped.

Similarly, the word plough (ploh in Old English) meant a "measure of land": but it has come to assume its modern meaning "an agricultural implement" from the Old Scandinavian word plogr "plough", whereas this implement meant in Old English sulh.

In other cases the Old English word has been completely lost and the Old Scandinavian word has survived. This is what happened in the case of the two words: sister, and take. The word sister in Modern English is the modern form of the Old Scandinavian form syster and not of the Old English word sweostor.

The word take in present-day English is of Scandinavian origin, and the Old English word meaning "take" (niman) has been lost.

Types of Scandinavian Borrowings:

1. Early Borrowing:

In the early period, Scandinavian loan words in English were few. Some of the early borrowings were connected with the sea, as is seen from the word batswegen "boatswain, or boatman". An important early borrowing is the word law, which came into Old English from Old Scandinavian.

2. place names:

The largest number of place names that came into Old English from Old Scandinavian are found in Yorkshire and Lincolnshire. All place names with the suffixes - by (which originally meant

"a piece of land" in Old Scandinavian), and - toft (with the Secandinavian meaning a piece of ground") show the influence of Scandinavian settlement. Thus we have these place names:

Rugby	Derby	Whitby
Linthorpe	Bishopsthorpe	Althorp
Langthwaite	Cowperthwaite	Applethwaite
Nortoft	Langtoft	Eastoft

3. Later Borrowing:

The majority of these loan words were simple, as they were commonly to be used in every - day conversation. Some of the nouns that came into the language are:

band	bank	birth	bull
gap	guess	keel	kid
root	score	seat	sister
trust	want	window	
dirt	dress	egg	fellow
leg	link	loan	race
skill	skin	skirt	sky

Following are some of the adjectives:

awkward	flat	ill	loose
tight	weak		
low	odd	rugged	sly

Among the verbs are these:

bask	call	cast	crawl
rid	take		
die	lift	hit	raise

It is to be noted that the two verbs give, and get were not taken from Scandinavian; but under Scandinavian influence, they changed in form and meaning from their forms and meanings in Old English.

4. Near Synonyms:

Borrowings from Scandinavian have given such meaning differentiations as exist between these pairs of words:

From Old English	*From Old Scandinavian*
no	nay
whole	hale
rear	raise
sick	ill
hide	skin
craft	skill
from	fro

5. Grammaticl Features:

The grammar of a language is usually very little influenced by foreign borrowings. So, we do not expect to find old English to show drastic changes in its grammatical structure in spite of the many borrowings in the vocabulary. What grammatical features Old English owes to Old Scandinavian is actually the borrowing of these three pronouns; <u>they</u>, <u>them</u>, and <u>their</u>. Although these are not grammatical features as such, they usually form a part of the basic vocabulary of every language which is rarely transferred from one language to the other.

Old Scandinavian settlers may have helped indirectly in the spread of the two grammatical features: the form are of the verb "to be"; the suffix-s of the third person singular present verb.

Here the Scandinavian influence does not mean a transfer of a grammatical feature, but actually an accelerating factor among the many factors behind linguistic change. These two grammatical features were characteristic of the northern dialects of Old English, and were later extended to the Midland dialects.

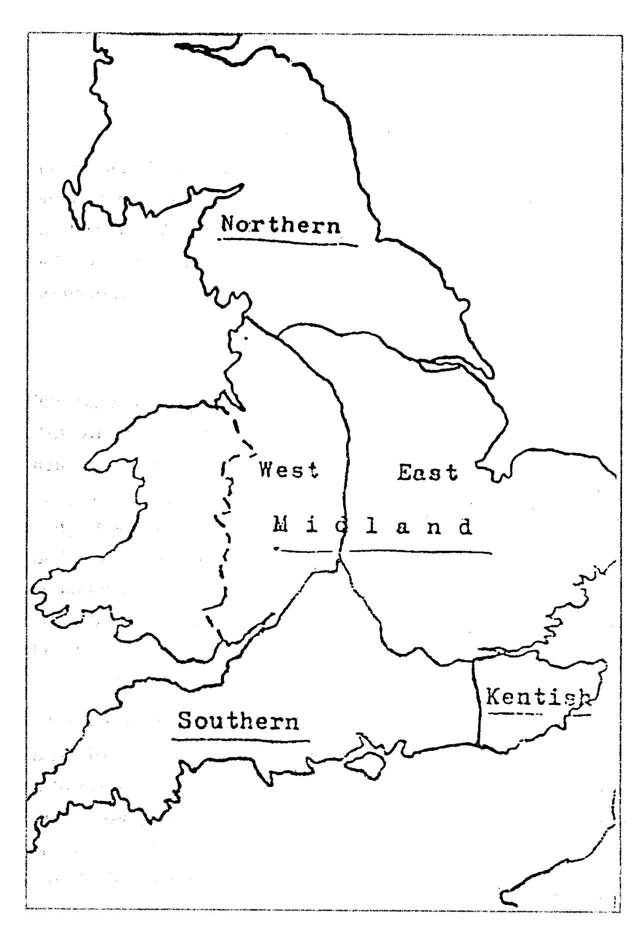
Chapter 7
Middle English

The Middle English period was a time of great changes in the English language. These changes affected the grammar of the language as well as the vocabulary. In grammar this meant the gradual loss of inflections, and in vocabulary, this resulted in the disappearance of many Old English words and the acquistition of thousands of words from French and Latin.

1. Middle English Dialects;

The principal Middle English dialects correspond in a general way to the four chief dialects of Old English. The Kentish dialect of Old English became Kentish Middle English. The area which is called Southern occupies nearly the same territory as the West Saxon dialect of Old English. Northern Middle English is also a development of Northern (or Northumbrian) Old English. Mercian Old English, the dialect of Central England, is generally called Midland for the Middle English period. This Midland dialect is usually divided into two subareas, East and West Midland.

It is only towards the end of the 14th century that we see the language of London - the language of the court, and of great poets, like Chaucer - assume throughout Britain the form of a common written and literary standard language. Previously, only dialects existed, local speech forms that changed from one to the next. This may help to explain what Chaucer has called "the


Northern
West
East
Midland
Kentish
Southern

great diversity of English". It is this literary standard language that is taken as the basis for the present analysis.

2. Middle English Spelling:

Changes in pronunciation are usually reflected in the writing system only after the lapse of some time. So, the changes in the sound system of English from Old English to the Middle English period affected the writing system only in the later stages:

The following table shows the Old English spellings that disappeared in Middle English:

Old English	*Middle English*
æ [æ]	a
y [y]	u,i
đ [đ]	đ
Ø [Ø]	th
w [w]	u,w

The first letter was a symbol for the old English vowel [æ], and it was replaced in the Middle English period by the letter [a].

The second letter represented the high front rounded vowel [y] in Old English words like đynne and fyr, and these were found in Middle English texts with either the letter u (usually under the influence of the French writing system) or the letter i.

The sound [đ], which was represented in the writing system of Old English by the letter đ was represented in Middle English by Ø or by đ. In late Middle English both đ and Ø disappeared and were replaced by th.

[w] disappeared from Middle English texts, and was first replaced by u in the earlier half of the Middle English period (roughly up to 1250). In later manuscripts the sound [w] was usually represented by the letter w.

The symbol g was used in some English manuscripts of this period to represent sometimes the sound [y], and sometimes the sound [g].

The French Influence:

From the time of the Norman Conquest in 1066 to about the middle of the fourteenth century, French was the language of the upper classes in Britain. Many French words were borrowed into English, and these kept their spellings when they were used in writing.

Some of the changes that occurred as a result of the influence of the French writing system are:

1. ou instead of ū:

The word hūs, "house" had this splling in Old English and in early Middle English. But in Late Middle English and under the French influence it came to be written hous.

2. u instead of y:

O.E. fyr "fire" was written fur and fuir in Middle English. In the South of England it was written with v instead of f; vur, and vuir.

3. ie instead of ē:

The Old English verb spedan "to speed" appears in late Middle English texts as spiede (n.).

4. v instead of f:

The Old English word līf "līfe" was written lieve in Middle English.

5. ch instead of c:

O.E. cidan "to blame" was written in Middle English chide (n.)

6. qu instead of cw:

The word cwēn "queen" in Old English was spelt quen and queen in Middle English.

3. Phonology:

The Consonants:

Middle English is now being studied from manuscripts, records, and documents, and discussion of the exact nature of its sound system presents more difficulties than would be encountered when dealing with a language spoken today like Modern English. What conclusions are drawn in this respect should never be looked upon as final.

The following table presents the consonant phonemes of the London dialect of Middle English:

	Bi-labial	*Labio-dental*	*Dental*	*Alveo-lar*	*Alveo-palatal*	*Velar*	*Glot-tal*
Stops	p b			t d		k g	
Affricates					tš dž		
Fricatives		f v	Ø đ	s z	š	x	h
Nasals	m			n		ŋ	
Lateral				l			
Trill				r			
Semi-vowels					y	w	

Compared with Old English consonants, the consonants of Middle English present these differences:

1. The vocied velar fricative /g/ (غ) disappeared during the Middle English period, although the voiceless counterpart was still there. The voiceless velar fricative / x / (خ) was a significant sound of Middle English till after Chaucer's time.

2. Three new fricative consonants developed during the Middle English period:

/v/ Was an allophone of / f / in Old English, but was a separate phoneme in Middle English.

/d/ became an indepdent significant sound (a phoneme) in Middle English and was no longer a membrer of the / Ø / phoneme as had been the case in Old English,

/z/ was also a separate phoneme in Middle English, and not an allophone of the Old English consonant /s/.

3. / r / was still a trill in Middle English, as it had been in Old English.

Compared with Modern English consonants, the preceding table Shows that:

1. The consonant /x/ which existed in Middle English has disappeared from Modern English.
2. Two new consonant phonemes have developed in Modern English:

   /ž/ a voiced alveo-palatal fricative, whose voiceless counterpart / š / existed in Middle English.

/ŋ/ a voiced velar nasal is now a consonant phoneme of Modern English, but was only an allophone of the phoneme /n/ in Middle English.

3. These consonant clusters which occurred at the beginnings of words in both Old English and Middle English (initial clusters) have disappeared in Modern English:

hl - hr - hn - kn - gn - wr - and wl -

Examples:

Old English		***Modern English***	
gnawe	[gnawe]	gnaw	[nɔ:]
knight	[knixt]	Knight	[nayt]
write	[wri: tə]	write	[rayt]

4. Final - ng was pronounced [-ŋg], and not [-ŋ] as in Modern English:

young	[yuŋg]	young	[yəŋ]
sing	[siŋg]	sing	[siŋ]

5. The consonant l was pronounced before the sound f, k, and m:

half	[half]	half	[ha : f]
folk	[fɔlk]	folk	[fowk]
palmer	[palmer]	palmer	[pa:mə(r)]

6. Initial th- was pronouncd [ø] (not [đ]), and final -s was pronounced [-s] (and not [-z]):

was	[was]	was	[wəz]

his	[his]	his	[hiz]
houses	[hu:zes]	houses	[howzəz]
that	[øat]	that	[đæt]

7. The suffix - cioun (-tion in Modern English) was pronounced [-siyu : n] in Middle English.

nacioun	[nasiyu : n]	nation	[neyšən]
condicioun	[kɔ ndisiyu:n]	condition	[kəndišən]

8. Like Old English, Middle English had geminated consonants. This meant that the same consonant may be doubled in the middle of a word:

sonne	[sunnə]	son	[sən]
alle	[allə]	all	[ɔ:l]

4. The Vowels:

The vowel phonemes of Middle English (represented mainly by Chaucer's dialect)

	Front	***Central***	***Back***
High	i		u
Mid	e	ə	
Low		a	

Compared with Old English vowels, the vowels of Middle English showed these differences:

1. Two front vowels had disappeared from the language by the time of the Middle English period, These were the front high rounded vowel [y], and the front low (unrounded) vowel [æ].

2. There were more complex vowels in Middle English than in Old English; most Old English complex vowels had [ə] as the second element, but in Middle English we see the development of complex vowels with [y] and [w] as the second element.

Compared with Modern English, Middle English had these distinctive features:

1. It had these long vowels, which did not have the characteristic gliding quality of Modern English complex vowels:

[i :], [e :], [a :], which may have been in free variation with [æ :], [u :], [o:], and [ɔ :].

2, Middle English had a smaller number of complex vowels than Modern English. It did not have more than six complex vowels:

/ay/ which probably alternated with /æy/.

day/dæy/ or/ day/.

/ɔy/ as in boy /bɔy/, coy/ kɔy/.

/ɔw/ as in foughten /fɔwxtən/.

/aw/ as in straunge /strawndžə/.

/ew/ as in fewe /fewə/.

/iw/ as in rude /riwdə/.

The following table presents the long and short vowels of Chaucer's dialect of Middle English

/a :/	bathed	/ba:đə d/
/a/	that	/øat/
/e :/	swete	/swe:tə/
/e/	wende	/wendə/
/i :/	ryde	/ri:də/
/i/	swich	/swits̆/
/e/	sonne	/sunnə/
/u/	ful	/ful/
/ɔ/	folk	/fɔlk/
/ɔ:/	hooly	/hɔ:li/
/o :/	route	/ro : tə/

5. Stress and Intonation:

In Middle English the strongest stress usually occurred on the first vowel of the word, so long as this vowel did not make part of the prefix.

The nature of intonation in Middle English, like that of Old English is still beyond the limits of our present knowledge of the language.

6. Phonetic Notation:

The first 18 lines of Chaucer's Prologue are given below, first in the spelling of F.N. Robinson's Chaucer's Complete Works, and then in phonetic notation:

1. Whan that Aprille with his shoures soote

   hwan đat a:pril wiø is s̆u:res so:tə.

2. The droght of March hath perced to the roote,

   đədruxtə ɔf marts̆ haθ pe:rsəd to: đəro:to

3. And bathed every veyne in swich licour

and ba:đə d evri væyn in switš liku:r

4. Of which vertu engendered is the flour;

ɔf hwitš vertyu endženđrəd is đə flu:r

5. Whan Zephiarus eek with his sweete breeth

hwan zefirus e:k wiθ is swe:tə bræ:θ

6. Inspired hath in every holt and heeth

inspi:rəd haθ in evri h ɔlt and hæ: θ

7. The tendre croppes, and the yonge sonne

đə tendər krɔppəs and đəyuŋgə sunnə.

8. Hath in the Ram his halva cours yronne,

haθ in θə rǣm is halvə ku:ə rs irunn:ə.

9. And smale foweles maken melodye.

and sma:lə fu:ləs ma: kən melɔdi : ə.

10. That sepen al the nyght wiht open ye

dat sle:pan al đa nixt with ɔ:pən i :ə.

11. (So priketh hem nature in hir corages),

Sɔ :əprik θ hem natyu:r in hir kura:džə s

12. Thanne longen folk to goon on pilgrimages,

θan lɔ:ŋgan fɔlk to: gɔ:n ɔ n pilgrima: džos

13. And palmeres for to seken straunge strondes,

and palmərs fɔr to : se : kən strawndžə strɔ: ndə s

14. To ferne halwes kowthe in sondry londes;

to: fernə halwəs ku :θ in sundri lɔ : ndəs

15. And specially from every shires ende.

and spesiali frəm evri ši: rəs endə.

16. Of Engelond to Caunterbury they wende,

ɔf eŋgəlɔnd to: kawntərbri θæy wendə.

17. They hooly blisful martir for to seke,

θa hɔ:h blisful martir fɔr to: se:kə

18. That hem hath holpen whan that they were seeke,

θat hem haθ hɔlpən hwan θat θæy wæ:r se:kə.

MORPHOLOGY and SYNTAX:

1. Middle English Inflections:

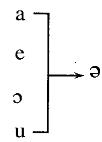
The inflectional system of Old English had been very much simplified by the time of Chaucer. Nearly all distinctions of case were lost in Middle English, and near the end of this period, the suffix -es took the place of the many suffixes which had indicated the genitive singular and the plural of nouns in Old English.

This loss of inflectional endings was due partly to sound change and partly analogic change (or analogy), (For a discussion of these two major factors of linguistic change, see Introductions).

The sound changes that produced this great simplification of the inflectional system of Old English in the Middle English

period were simple but far-reaching. These sound changes were mainly three:

1. The change of Middle English m into n: Middle English m →n.
2. The loss of the final - n of the inflectional suffixes.
3. The change of Old English a, e, o, and u in inflectional sufffixes into ∂.



The last of these three changes, the change of [a], [e], [ɔ], and [u] to [ə], has been considered by many historical linguists as constituting the most important difference between Old English and Middle English.

This third change may be illustrated by the following examples from Old English and Middle English.

Old English		***Modern English***	
belle	[belle]	belle	[bell ə]
oxa	[ɔ ksa]	oxe	[ɔ ks ə]
nacod	[nakɔd]	naced	[na:kəd]
sunu	[sunu]	sune	[sun ə]

The three changes may be illustrated by the following:

In Old English the word lufu was a feminine noun "love" which had these cases for the singular, and three for the plural:

Singular	
Nom.	lufu
Gen.,Dat,	lufe
Acc	lufe
Plural	
Now.,Ge	lufa
Acc.	lufa
Dat.	lufum

In Middle English the three forms that ended with the three vowels (-u), (-e), and (-a) became luve [luvə], without any indication of case or any differentiation between the singular and plural.

The form luum [luvum] "to the loves" underwent the three sound changes listed above:

1. The final -m of luvum was changed to -n by the end of the Old English period; so the word became luvun.
2. The word luvun lost the final-n *[luvu].
3. The final - u of luvu became an-e / - ə / luvel [luvə].

As an example of analogic change, the suffix - es in Middle English was used to indicate the genitive singular, as well as the plural of luve. Thus we have in Middle English the word luves similar to (or on the analogy of) stones, although lufu and stan had two completely different inflectional systems in Old English.

(*) is an indication that such forms were not actually found in the written materials of the period.

Nouns:

As has been seen in lufu "love", which was a feminine noun in Old English, all the other nouns had nearly lost their inflections by the end of the Middle English period.

The noun sunu "son", which was a strong masculine noun in Old English dropped most of its inflectional suffixes in Middle English, retaining only - e and - es:

		Old English	*Middle English*
Sing.	**Nom.**	sunu	sone
	Gen.	suna	sones
	Dat.	suna	sone
	Acc.	sunu	sone
plur.	**Nom.**	suna	sones
	Gen.	suna	sones
	Dat.	suna	sones
	Acc.	sunum	sones

As has been pointed out earlier, the first vowel in O.E. sunu [-u-] did not change in Middle English as regards its pronunciation, although there was a spelling change as we see in sone. The word sunu had the pronunciation [sunu], and the same word was pronounced [sunə] in Middle English. In Modern English this same vowel has become [ə], and the word is pronounced [s∂n] (after the loss of the final [ə].

The suffix -es [əs] which was used in Middle English for the genitive singular and also for the plural has come to be pronounced [-z] in Modern English although is written-s for the plural <u>sons</u> and <u>'s</u> for the genitive singular <u>son's</u>. The noun sunu was a strong masculine noun in Old English. But not all nouns in

Old English were strong; some of the nouns were weak. Some of these weak nouns took over the plural endings -s and -es (both pronounced [-es] of the strong nouns) and some others kept the suffix -an of the weak nouns in Old English. This suffix came to be -en in Middle English, and was pronounced [-ən]. At one time [əs] and [- ən] were rival forms, especially in the South of England, but by the end of the Middle English period, the suffix [-əs] was accepted as the standard sign of the plural in English nouns. Some exceptions remained in the Middle English period, and have been with us in Modern English: e.g.oxen.

The development of two O.E. nouns, ear (a weak neuter noun "ear"), and oxa (a weak mascline noun "ox") shows the extension of [-əs] to the first during the Middle English period and the preservation of [-ən] in the second. The development of these two nouns may be presented as follows:

		Old English	*Middle English*
Sing.	**Nom.**	ēare	ēre
	Gen.	ēaran	eres
	Dat.	ēaran	ere
	Acc.	ēare	ere
plur.	**Nom.**	ēaran	eres
	Acc.	ēaran	eres
	Gen.	ēaran, ēarena	eres
	Dat.	ēarum	eres
Sing.	**Nom.**	oxa	oxe
	Gen.	oxan	oxes
	Dat.	oxan	oxe
	Acc.	oxan	oxe
plur.	**Nom.**	oxan	oxen
	Acc.	oxan	oxen
	Gen.	oxan, oxena	oxen
	Dat.	oxum	oxen

Gender:

In Middle English, the language began to lose what is generally called "grammatical" gender in favour of "natural" gender. Natural gender is usually based on distinctions of sex.

The endings of Old English made it very easy to distinguish grammatical gender. The nouns had distinct forms for the different genders: stānas "stones" (masculine plural), cwēna "queens" (feminine plural), and "word" (neuter plural), for example, could be distinguished on the basis of the existence (or non-existence) of a distinctive suffix in each case. But when in Middle English, the words had the plural in -es: stones, queenes, and wordes, nothing in the word any longer indicated its gender.

2. Adjectives;

In Old English an adjective usually had the same gender as the preceding noun. Thus an adjective had three different declensions in the singular: for the masculine, the feminine, and the neuter. The word gōd "good", for example, had these distinctive forms for the accusative singular, depending on the gender of the noun that occurred with it:

	Masculine	***Feminine***	***Neuter***
Acc.	gōdne	gōde	god

But most of these suffixes were lost in Middle English. Before 1250 the form of the nominative singular of the adjective was extended to all cases of the singular, and the form of the nominative plural was used for all the other cases of the plural. This meant that "good", for example was used for all cases of

the singular in Midde English, and "goode" was the form found for all cases of the plural. This final -e of gode /- ə/ was pronounced in early Middle English. But after the beginning of th fourteenth century this final -e was no longer pronounced, although it was kept in the spelling. So the pronunciation of god, and goode in late Middle English was in both cases [go : d].

In Chaucer, we still find traces of the inflected adjective. The word yonge in Chaucer's Prologue (1.7) is an example of the weak declension of the adjective, here coming after the definite article the "the yonge sonne".

The Old English genitive plural of the adjective all appears sometimes in the form aller, alder "of all", from Old English ealra, genitive plural of eal. In the Prologue there are these two occurrences: hir aller cappe "the cap of them all", and alderbest "the best of them all" (lines 586, and 710 respectively).

The suffixes for the comparison of adjectives in Chaucer are the same as in old English: ere, and - este; but the final - e is usually not pronounced.

Some of the comparative forms of adjectives that are found in Chaucer, but are no longer used in Modern Standard English are:

badder	instead of	worse
lenger	instead of	longer

3. Pronouns:

Most of the distinctions of person, gender, number, and case that existd in the personal pronouns in Old English were retained

in Middle English. Nearly all the distinctions that existed in Middle English still exist in Modern English. The most noticeable simplification in the system of the personal pronouns of Middle English is the absence of the dual number. The two forms for the dual: wit and yit, [wit] "we two" and [yit] "you two", did not survive beyond the third century.

The First Personal Pronoun in Old English ic existed also in Middle English, but the final consonant was lost when the pronoun was unstressed. This led to the development of the new form i [i :]. Otherwise, the First Personal pronoun preserved in Middle English nearly all the cases that it had in Old English.

The forms for the second Personal pronoun came down to Middle English with very little change from the corresponding forms in Old English: [Øu:] "thou", and [ye:] "ye" had the same pronunciation in Middle English as in Old English, although the spellings were different.

Chaucer had a lightly different form of the second personal plural pronoun yow [yu:] (Prologue lines 34, and 38).

The Third Personal pronoun in Middle English was generally the same as in Old English, with two main exceptions:

1. The pronoun she was usually to be found in the North, while the form he (or heo) was in the South.
2. The pronouns they, their, and them developed in the North; and by the end of the Middle English period they had replaced the forms that were in the South: hi, here, and hem.

The forms that we find in Chaucer are: She, thei, here and hem.

4. The Article:

The Definite Article, with its three distinct forms for the masculine sē, the feminine sēo, and the neuter đæt, was used in Old English also as a Demonstrative pronoun.

In late Middle English, the Definite article lost all inflections and had the unchanging form "the". The Demonstrative pronoun has only two forms:

đat for the singular

đo for the plural

The development of the Indefinite article is of special interest, as it was used originally in Old English as a numeral. The word an in Old English meant "one". By regular sound change, it came to be /ɔ:n/ in Middle English; in Chaucer it is spelt oon "one". But in late Middle English, it developed into [own], and was changed later into one [wən].

Because it was used in Middle English also as an indefinite article, it was unstressed and, this resulted in the change of the vowel to [ə]. Subsequently the final consonant (-n) was lost, and the indefinite article became a or (an) [ə] or [ən].

5. Verbs:

In Middle English, as in Old English, there are two conjugations of verbs, the strong and the weak:

Strong Verbs

O.E.	rīdan	rād	ridon	riden	"ride"
	[ri : dan]	[ra : d]	[ridɔːn]	[riden]	
	bindan	band	bundon	bunden	"bind"
	[bindan]	[band]	[bundɔːn]	[bunden]	
M.E.	ride (n)	rod	ride (n)	ride (n)	
	[ri: den]	[rɑː d]	[ridən]	[ridən]	
	binde (n)	bond	bunde(n)	bunde(n)	
	[bi:nden]	[bɑː nd]	[bu : ndən]	[bu:ndən]	

Weak Verbs

O.E.	lufian	lufode	lufod	"love"
	[luvyan]	[luvɔde]	[luvɔd]	
	fēlan	fēlde	fēled	"feel"
	[fe:lan]	[fe:lde]	[fe:led]	
M.E.	luven	luvede	luved	
	[luvən]	[luvəd]	[luvəd]	
	felan	felte	feled	
	[fe:lən]	[feltə]	[fe:ləd]	

The main changes that affected the verbs from the end of the Old English period up to the end of what we call Middle English may be summarized as follows:

1. The loss of the final - n of the infinitive.
2. The change of the inflectional vowels (the unstressed vowels in the inflectional suffixes to -e [-ə].
3. The continuous decrease in the number of strong verbs, together with the necessary and natural increase in the number of weak verbs.

Strong and weak verbs:

The Strong verbs in Middle English were small as a group in comparison with the steadily growing number of weak verbs, although the list of strong verbs included some of the most common verbs in the language. The reduction in the number of strong verbs came as a result either of the loss of some strong verbs or of the passing over of some others into the weak group. Thus the two verbs:

lēon "to lend, give", and

hnigan "to how down"

did not survive in Middle English; while

dwīnen "to melt"

became weak in Middle English, although it was strong in Old English.

It often happened that the weak and strong forms of the same verb competed for many centuries. Thus the two verbs crepe "to creep" and ryse "to rise" had two rival forms each for the past (or preterit):

	Strong Past	Weak Past
crepe	crope	crepte
ryse	ros	rysed

In Modern standard English, the past of the verb crepe, crepte, has survived, while the strong from crope is no longer used. The case of the past forms of the verb ryse is exactly the opposite: rysed is not usually used by educated speakers, while rose is the

standard form. In Modern English these two verbs are written: crept, and rose.

Similarly, the verb climb, originally a strong verb in Old English, became a weak verb in the thirteenth century, with the past (or preterit) form as climbed. But we still find in Chaucer the strong past form clomb, which has since died in Modern standard speech.

Verbs borrowed into Middle English from French were usually treated as weak verbs:

Present	Past	Past Participle
Chaunge "change"	chaungede	y-chaunged

Participles:

In Middle English, the past participle form of the verb usually had y- as a prefix. This y - comes down from the Old English prefix ge-, which preceded many Old English verbs.

The Present Participle had the suffix -and in the North, but it had -ing in the South and Midlands. Thus a verb like here(n) "to hear" had two forms for the present participle: herand, and hering. Eventually, it was the last form that has survived; and we have hearing in Modern English.

II. Derivation in Middle English:

Old English vocabulary was enlarged by a frequent use of affixes (prefixes and suffixes), and by compounding (putting together more than one element of native origin).

In Middle English both affixation and compounding were much less frequently used as methods of word formation.

1. Affixation:

The prefixes for-, to-, and with-, which were very productive in Old English, were used only with very few combinations in Middle English:

for- forshake "to shake off"

fortravail "to tire"

The word shake is a native Old English word, but travail is taken from French. Neither of these two combinations is now used in Modern English.

to- tobreke "to break up"

tocleve "to split apart"

Both of these two words have disappeared in Modern English.

with- withsay "renounce"

withset "resist"

The two words have fallen into disuse, and the two words that have taken their places, renounce and resist, are borrowings from Latin.

We still have in Modern English these forms with two of the preceding prefixes:

forbid, forget, forgive, forsake, forgo, withhold, withstand, withdraw.

The Old English prefix on- (now un-) lived in Middle English, and is still used now. But starting from the Middle English period, it has had to compete with the rival prefixes like

counter-, dis-, re-, and trans-, which have come into the language from Latin.

un- unfasten

uncover

undo

unfold

The first two verbs came into the language in Middle English, and the last two belong to Modern English.

The suffixes -dom, -hood, and -ship used widely in Old English for formation lost much of their use in Middle English.

-dom dukedom from the noun duke

falsedom from the adjective false

richdom from the adjective rich

The three words occurred in Middle English texts, but only the first has survived in Modern English.

-hood Manhood

likelihood

These were new formations in Middle English, and have been retained in the language ever since.

- ship boldship

kindship

hardship

Of the three new formations in Middle English, the language has preserved only one, hardship

2. Compounding:

Compounding in Middle English was much less productive of new formations than it had been in Old English. Following are some of the few compounds that occurred in the writings of the period:

chamberlayn	"servant"
fayrhede	"beauty"
hakeneyman	"a man who hires horses"
knyght-fee	"knight's revenue"
redesman	"counsellor"

III. Middle English syntax:

Word Order:

Although the language in Middle English lost most of its inflections, word order as a structural feature of the sentence was still very flexible compared with that of Modern English. Today the usual order of a declarative statement in English is: Subject followed by Verb followed by Object.

This type of word order was also common in Middle English, but we still find other types, three of which may be illustrated from Chaucer alone:

1. I hym folwed "I followed him". (The Book of the Duchess, 397).
2. Thus taughte me my dame "Thus my mother taught me" (The Pardoner's Tale 684).
3. But hood wered he noon "but he wore no hood" (Gerneral Prologue 680).

If the third type of word order is justified by the exigencies of the poetic craft, the first two types still may sound unusual to ears of native speakers of English today.

Verbal Constructions:

Verbal constructions in Middle English were similar to comparable constructions in Modern English, with some important differences. Some of these differences are:

1. The uses of shall and will.
2. The occasional inconsistency in the "sequence of tenses".

In early Middle English worthe was used as the future of "to be": ich wot to-night ich worthe ded "I know (that) tonight I shall be dead" (The Fox and the Wolf 191).

The word will was used to express volition, usually with the meaning "want, desire": Ne Deeth, allas! ne wol nat han my lyf "Even death, alas, refuses to take my life" (Chaucer's The Pardoner's Tale 727). We also notice here the use of the double negative, ne (no) and nat (not).

The word shall was often used when obligation was implied, and this is similar to Modern usage: y shal rise and go to my fadir (Wyclif) "I will arise and go to my father" (Luke 15.18).

An instead of the absence of the "sequence of tenses" may be seen in this line from Gower (3999):

Sche fond and gadreth herbes suote

"She found and gathers sweet herbs" (where the second verb is present, while the first is past).

Negation:

As was seen in the preceding page, there were instances of double negative in Middle English. But even triple negatives were occasionally used in early Middle English:

ne waren naver nan martyrs swa pined (no were never not martyrs so punished). "no martyrs were ever so tortured" (The Peterborough Chronicle, 23).

Phonetic Notation:

This extract from the General Prologue of Chaucer's "Canterbury Tales", given first in ordinary spelling and then in phonetic notation typifies the main morphological and syntactic features of the language during the fourteenth century: (line 118, and lines 137 - 150).

118. There was also a Nonne, a Prioresse,
θæ: r was alsɔ: ənunn əpri: əressə.
137. And sikerly she was of great desport
and sikərli še: was ɔf græt despɔːrt
138. And ful plesaunt, and amyable of port
and ful plezaunt and amya:bl ɔf pɔrt
139: And peyned hire to counterfete cheere
and pæ:nəd hir to: ku:ntrə fe:tə tšě:rə
140. Of court, and to been estatlich of manere,
of kɔ:rt and to: be:n est:t litš ɔ f mane:rə
141. And to ben holden digne of reverence.
and to: be:n hɔ: ldən di:n ɔ f revə rensə .
142. But, for to speken of hire conscience,
but fɔr to: spæ:kən fɔir kənsyensə

143. She was so charitable and so pitous
    še: was sɔ: tšarita:bl and sɔ: pitu:s
144. She wolde wepe, if that she saugh a mous
    še: wo: ldə we:p if θat se: sawx əmu:s
145: Kaught in a trappe, if it were deed or bledde
    Kawxt in a trapp if it wæ:r dæd ɔr bledd ə
146: Of smale houndes hadde she that she fedde
    ɔ f smalə hu:nd əs had še: θat še: fedd ə
147: With rosted flessh, or milk and wastel-breed.
    wiθ r ɑ stəd fleš or milk and wastel bræ:d
148. but soore wept she if oon of hem were deed,
    but sɔr weptə se: if ɔ: n ɔf hem wæ:r dæ:d
149: Or if men smoot it with a yerde smerte;
    ɔr if men smɒ:t it wiθ ə yerd ə smert ə
150. And al was conscience and tendre herte
    and al was kɔnsyens and tendər hertə

Apart from the general presentation preceding the above passage from Chaucer, these points are worthy of notice in our study of these lines from the Prologue:

A. Morphology

The inflectional suffixes that occurred with nouns and adjectives in Old English have nearly all been lost:

The noun trappe and the adjective deed (1. 145), for example, occur without inflectional suffixes. Even the final [-e] in such words as yerde [yerde] smerte [smerte], (which is a trace of the inflectional suffix that occurred with nouns and adjectives in the instrumental case in Old English), is actually there more for

metrical purpose than for the purpose of case distinctions through inflections.

2. The Old English strong verb healdan is now changed in Chaucer's time. The past participle in Old English was healden, but now it is holden: the first stressed vowel ea is now o [o], and the second vowel e is now still written e but is pronounced [ə] because it is now unstressed.

The verb wēpan, which was a strong verb in Old English, is now a weak verb having the past (or preterit) form in wepte.

3. The suffix- lich, an adjective suffix in O.E., is still found here in the adjectives estatlich (1. 140). This suffix has developed into Modern English -ly, occurring usually with adverbs.

4. The pronouns hem (1. 148) "them" represents one of the differences between dialects in Middle English. The Southern and the South Midland dialects had the form hem, while the Northern dialects had them. It is the form them that has survived in Standard speech.

B. Syntax:

1. The flexibility of word order in Chaucer's time may be seen in the position of the verb in relation to the subjunctive in some of the lines. The construction hadde she (1.146) is similar to the construction wepte (1.148), and both are different from men smoot (1. 149) and al was (1.150).

2. The Old English inflection for the genitive case (through the use of the suffix -es, for example, for many singular nouns)

is now being superseded by the construction with the preposition of. This syntactic construction is sometimes called periphrastic genitive, since the construction is now made up of a phrase and not merely of a single word. In these fifteen lines there are eight constructions with the preposition of.

3. Either the word to or the phrase for to is used for the infinitive verb, both with nearly the same meaning: to (1.141), and for to (1.142).

4. The use of that in the extract is different from its usage in Modern English. The word that after if (1.44) would sound unnecessary today, and the relative pronoun that (1. 146) would usually come after houndes.

5. The indefinite article is found here in its present form a [ə]' but there is total absence of the definite article the.

Borrowings in Middle English Vocabulary:

A language may borrow some of its vocabulary from another language, but it rarely borrows its grammatical features. That explains why foreign influences on the vocabulary of English all through its development have been incomparably greater than its grammar.

We have seen that grammatical changes in Middle English were great. One of the contributing factors for such changes was the lack of education, which prevented the development of a literary standard language. But the borrowings into English from French during the Middle English period were so extensive that they cannot be compared with other borrowings into the language at any other period of its history.

It is true that there were other influences, besides the French, during the Middle English period. There were Latin as well as Scandinavian and Arabic borrowings in Middle English; but the number of such borrowed words seems negligible when compared with the huge number of French words that entered English during the period, especially after the Norman Conquest.

1. French Borrowings:

1. The Early Period:

The first period was that which extended between 1066 and 1250 The borrowings during these years were roughly 900 words. Most of these words were connected with the church and the upper class. Such words entered English during this early period:

noble	dame	servant	messenger
feast	story	rime	

2. The Late Period:

This was the period from 1250 to 1500; and it was the time when the English upper classes came to use French instead of English. At this stage the rate of borrowing reached its highest peak. Some of the most important borrowings are:

Government:

Govern	administer	crown
reign	royal	authority
tyrant	oppress	court
parliament	record	repeal
rebel	exile	liberty

Food

almonds	fig	date	grape
orange	lemon	cherry	peach
pastry	tart	jelly	
spice	herb	mustard	vinegar
roast	boil	fry	mince
curtain	couch	chair	cushion
screen	lamp	lantern	blanket
towel	basin		
recreation	leisure	dance	revel
fool	melody	music	chess
conversation	rein	harness	stable
scent	forest	park	

Arts and Science:

art	painting	sculpture	beauty
colour	figure	tone	cathedral
palace	chamber	ceiling	cellar
chimney	tower	porch	bay
choir	column	base	
poet	rime	prose	romance
story	chronicle	tragedy	prologue
preface	title	volume	chapter
paper	pen	study	logic
geometry	grammar	noun	clause
gender			
masculine	physician	surgeon	pain
plague	anatomy	stomach	pulse
remedy	balm	poison	

The preceding lists serve to illustrate how a huge number of French words was borrowed into English during the Middle English period, and how extensive these borrowings were. But these were not all the borrowings during this period. Examples of other borrowings from French mainly during the early Middle English period, are given in the following lists, which are divided into three main categories: nouns, adjectives, and verbs.

Nouns:

action	age	air	bucket
business	city	coast	comfort
country	courage	damage	debt
deceit	dozen	ease	envy
error	face	fame	flower
force	grain	grief	honour
hour	jest	joy	labour
manner	marriage	metal	mountain
noise	number	ocean	odour
opinion	order	pair	people
peril	person	piece	point
powder	power	rage	reason
river	seal	season	sign
sound	spirit	square	sum
tailor	task	unity	use
vision	waste		

Adjectives:

able	active	calm	certain
clear	common	curious	double

easy	fierce	final	firm
foreign	gentle	honest	innocent
natural	nice	obedient	original
perfect	poor	principal	proper
probable	pure	real	second
secret	simple	special	sure
strange	tender	universal	usual

Verbs:

advise	aim	allow	apply	arrange
arrive	carry	change	chase	close
consider	continue	count	cover	cry
deceive	declare	defeat	delay	desire
destroy	endure	enjoy	enter	form
join	grant	increase	inform	inquire
furnish	marry	mount	move	oblige
observe	pass	pay	please	practise
praise	prove	pursue	push	receive
refuse	relieve	remember	reply	satisfy
save	succeed	suppose	trace	travel
tremble	trip	wait		

It is not always easy to assign an exact date for each borrowed word. The approximate date of borrwing is still possible, however, in many cases, the phonetic factor being usually the most reliable means for fixing such dates. The phonetic factor involves the study of the phonetic shapes of words and the changes that occur to them. The phonetic changes on which we base our conclusions about the approximate dates for words

borrowed from French into English during the Middle English period are these:

1. The Consonants:

The two English words hotel and hostel came into English from French, but not at the same time. The first word "hotel" came later than the word "hostel". This is known through the difference between the medial (middle) consonants in the two words: the word hotel has only one medial consonant [-t-], but the word hostel has two medial consonants (a medial cluster) [-st-]. This cluster existed in French during the Old and Middle French periods: it was during the Middle French period that the word "hostel" was taken into Middle English, where it has kept this medial cluster [-st-] until the present day.

But the consonant [-s-] before [t-] has been lost in Modern French, as we have in the word hotel. Since the word hotel is also a borrowing from French, it must have entered English at a later time than the word hostel.

Similarly, the difference between the consonant [š] and the two consonants [tš] at the beginning of a word (initially) is enough to indicate that the word chef came into Enlish from French after the word chief had entered the language. The word chief came into the language from French during the Middle English period, when the French language still kept the pronunciation of ch- as [tš]. This pronunciation has been lost to Modern French as [šef] (and not [tšef]). There has been no similar change in Modern English; but from the phonetic

development of French, the word chef is a more modern introduction into English than chief.

The third example of consonant change in French on the basis of which we can decide the date of borrowing, may be seen in comparing the two words rouge, judge which are pronounced [ru wž] and [dž udž] in Modern English; and both have been borrowed from French. Because the sound [dž] existed only in Middle French, and has been substituted by [ž] in Modern French, we can conclude that the word judge was borrowed into English during the Middle English period and rouge has been taken into the language only recently.

These consonant differences upon which we base the dates of borrowing may be presented as follows:

Middle English Borrowings			***Modern English Borrowings***		
Example	**Ph. Tr.**	**Cons.**	**Example**	**Ph. Tr.**	**Cons.**
hostel	[hɔstl]	-st-	hotel	[hotel]	-t-
chief	[tšiyf]	tš	chef	[šef]	š-
judge	[džɔdž]	dž-	rouge	[ruwž]	-ž

Using the consonants as a guide for indicating the approximate dates of borrowing, we have found that the change in this case occurred to the French consonants, but the case is different with the vowels. It is the English vowels that have changed from Middle English to the present day, while the French vowels have remained relatively stable.

The two words fine and machine have been taken from French, the first during the Middle English period, and the other

only recently. The vowel in the first word is [-ay-], and the second vowel in the second word is [iy]; and it was during the early Modern English period that the English long vowel [i:] has changed into [ay]. So, the word fine which has suffered the change of [i:] into [ay] must have entered the language earlier than the word machine which has not suffered such change.

In the same way, the two words tour [tʊə r] and tower [tawə r] come from French; but the first word came into English later than the word tower. Like the word machine, the word tour does not show the same type of vowel change that the words fine and tower present. In the case of the word tower , we find that the vowel [aw] was [u:] in Middle English, and changed into [aw] only in Early Modern English. But the word tour has not suffered such a change, because it came into English in the Modern period.

A third example of the importance of vowel change for fixing an approximate date of borrowing is found in the two words case and fracas, "uproar, noise". The last part of the word fracas (-cas) [-ka:] has the same vowel [-a:] as the word case had in Middle French. In Middle English the word case [ka:sə:] had the same vowel [a:] that the word fracas has as a final vowel in preesent-day English. In early Modern English the vowel [a:] in case changed into Modern English [ey], and the word case is now pronounced [keys].

The difference between [a:] in fracas and [ey] in case is taken as a proof that the word case came into English during the

Middle English period, while the word fracas is a recent borrowing from French.

The three instances of vowel change from Middle English to Modern English may be presented in table form:

Middle English Borrowings			***Modern English Borrowings***		
Example	**Ph.Tr.**	**Vowel**	**Example**	**Ph.Tr.**	**Vowel**
fine	[fayn]	[-ay]	machine	[mešiyn]	[-iy-]
tower	[tawə r]	[-aw-]	tour	[tuər]	[-uə-]
case	[keys]	[-ey-]	fracas	[fræka:]	[-a:]

These types of vowel change from middle to Modern English have been called "The Great Vowel Shift" ; and it will be dealt with at more length in the following chapter (Chapter 8).

Many of the verbs that were borrowed from French into English during that period were taken in the plural form of the present, as may be seen from the verb receive in Modern English. The from receive is clearly more a reflex (a descendant) of the French verb form recevez (in Vouz reçevez "you receive") than of the verb form reçoit (in Il reçoit "He receives").

Doublets:

It sometimes happened that a word was taken twice from French into Middle English. This has resulted in the existence of two words in Modern English with some difference in form, but which originally had the same meaning. These two words are usually called doublets. In time, however, the identity of meaning also disappeared; and we have two words of related form and meaning.

The words catch and chase may be called doublets. They were taken into Middle English from French, but each was taken from a different dialect of Middle French. The first was taken from what was called Norman French, and the second from Central French. The differences in form between the two words are clear: the first is [kætš], and the second is [tšeys]. They have also come to be differentiated in meaning, the first being "stop by getting hold of, discover or find a person doing something" and the second signifying "run after to capture or kill, drive away".

Another doublet taken into Middle English from two different dialects of French may be seen in the two words reward and regard. The consonantal difference between the two words is limited to the difference between [-w-] and [-g-]; but there is also a meaning distinction between "to give in return - reward", and "to consider - regard".

Hybrids:

French words that came into Middle English took on the native affixes (the prefixes and suffixes that had come down from Old English). Thus a hybrid is a word made up of two or more elements, one of which is borrowed from another language. A word like nobler or noblest may be called a hybrid, because it is made up of noble borrowed from French into Middle English, and the native suffix -er or -est that had been in the language ever since the old English period.

Other hybrids that own their existence to borrowings from French during the Middle English period are:

faithful, faith (from French) -ful (from Old English) justly, just (from French) -ly (from Old English) gentleman, gentle (from French) -man (from Old English).

II. Latin Borrowings:

Latin borrowings came into the language during the late Middle English period. Compared with borrowings from French, these borrowings were generally of a learned character as they came from Latin into the written language.

The following list presents examples of Latin borrowings into Middle English:

Conspiracy	contempt	distract	history
Include	infancy	individual	infinite
Intellect	legal	moderate	necessary
Popular	private	rational	submit
Genius	inferior	index	picture
Polite	quiet	summary	incredible
Spacious			

Triplets:

The result of French borrowings in Midldle English was the existence of doublets: two words with related forms and related meanings. The borrowings from Latin added a new dimension. We no longer have only two words with related forms and meanings; we now have examples of three words with related meanings. These we may call triplets. Such triplets do not have exactly the same meanings, but each of the three words is used

in a context where the two others are not. Such triplets may be represented by the follwing examples:

From Old English	*From French*	*From Latin*
rise "get up"	**mount** "get up"	**asscend** "climb"
fast "firmly fixed"	**fast** "solid"	**secure** "safe"
time "days past, present, and future"	**time** "time a person lives"	**epoch** "time of impor-tant events"

Chapter 8
Early Modern English

1. Standard English:

The dialects of Middle English differed greatly from each other, and these differences were reflected in the various forms of writing the language until about 1500. At about this time one form of written English began to displace all the others. This form of writing, which we may call Standard Written English was based on the spoken dialect of London.

When we speak now of Standard English, we mean that dialect of English, which may sometimes be called the Literary Dialect usually based on Standard written English. This does not mean that dialects do not exist in Modern spoken English. In fact, there are dialect areas in England today which correspond roughly to the four main dialect divisions of Old and Middle English although the R.P. (Received Pronunciation) is considered by many English people as the Standard spoken language of England. This R.P. is actually based on the pronunciation of the inhabitants of the Southern and Southwestern parts of England.

The situation in the United States also presents many dialectal differences. We cannot talk of one dialect spoken by people all over the United States since one can distinguish at least three dialect areas there.

So, this dialectal diversity of English has always been there. In fact, such a diversity is characteristic of all living languages.

The Standard English we mean here is that variety of English based on the literary or written language.

This standard language began to develop in the course of the fifteenth century, based on the Midland variety of Middle English centered around the London area.

The main factors that led to the emergence of this standard dialect were:

1- The East Midland dialect was spoken by a greater number of people than any other dialect of Middle English.

2- This standard dialect was the dialect of London, the capital and commercial center of England. Its prestige spread to all the other counties as it was the seat of the court, the upper class, and the center of the social and intellectual activities of the whole country.

3- Among the minor factors that helped in the establishment of this standard are: Cambridge, Wycliffe; and Chaucer. The two universities of Cambridge and Oxford were at this period important centers of learning. But the influence that may have been exerted by Cambridge was greater than that of Oxford, because Cambridge was in the East Midland area and Oxford was on the border between the Midland and Southern dialect areas. Wycliffe was a translator of the Bible and the author of a great number of prose writings, which had more in common with the Oxford dialect than the dialect of the Midlands.

Chaucer was the greatest poet of Middle English, and the best known of the English authors in the pre-Shakespearean era. But

Chaucer's language, though important, does not reflect the characteristics of the Midland dialect as clearly as do the records, letters, and papers by business men.

Among the other contributing factors to the establishing of Standard English were the introduction of printing, the spread of education, the increase in communication, and the development of Social consciousness.

Caxton was the first English printer, and he used the English of London in printing many translations. The spread of Standard English may be attributed to Caxton more than to any other single person.

Education was influential in spreading Standard English through the formal teaching of grammar at schools as well as through the acquiring of many traits of this standard dialect by the great number of readers of books, newspapers, and magazines.

The increase in communication, like education, acted as an influential means of bringing this standard dialect within the reach of an evergrowing number of the native speakers of English.

With the growth of social consciousness, social mobility becomes more possible, and the lines between social classes become less and less rigid. This makes it possible for members of one class to move to a higher one, mainly through the adoption of its speech habits.

II. The Phonology:

1. The Consonants:

Fricatives:

The fricative consonant [Ø] become [đ] in some words:

	Middle English	*Ear. Modern English*
The	[Øə]	[đə]
Them	[Øem]	[đem]
That	[Øat]	[đæt]

The two fricative consonants [f] and [s] suffered the same change that occurred to [Ø]: they became - v and - z respectively in some cases:

His	[his]	[hiz]
Faces	[fa : səs]	[feysiz]
Of	[ɔf]	[əv]

Th fricatives [s] and [z] became [š] and [ž] respectively when they were followed by [y], usually in words borrowed from French:

	E. Modern English	*Modern English*
special	[spesyal]	[spešəl]
vision	[vizyun]	[vižən]

The affricates [tš] and [dž] in Modern English were in early Modern English [t] and [d] followed by [y]:

fortune	[fɔrtyun]	[fɔ: (r) tšən]
cordial	[kɔrdyal]	[kɔrdžəl] (US.)

The voiceless velar fricative [x] of Middle English has been completely lost to Modern English:

		Modern English
saugh	[sawx]	[sɔ:] "saw"
night	[nixt]	[nayt]

In some cases Middle English [x] became [f]:

laughen	[lawxən]	[la : f] or [læf]
tough	[tu : x]	[tə f]

The consonant [r] was trilled in Middle English, but it has become a fricative in some words in British English:

red, and write.

In American English it has become a glide.

bird, and teacher.

The Consonant: [l]

The consonant [l] has been lost in Modern English if it occurred in Middle English before [k], or [f]:

	E. Modern English	***Modern English***
Talk	[tɔlk]	[tɔ: k]
Folk	[fɔlk]	[fowk]
Palm	[palm]	[pa : m]
Half	[half]	[ha : f] or [hæf]

Cluster Simplification:

The Middle English consonants which occurred in identical clusters of two (geminates) were either initial (at the beginning of a word), medial (in the middle of a word), or final (at the end of a word).

The medial clusters which have been simplified ever since the Middle English period were geminates. Gemination or : تشديد was characteristic of the consonants in both Old and Middle English.

	E. Modern English	*Modern English*
frogge	[frɒgga]	[frɔg], or [frag]
Sitten	[sittən]	[sit]

Initial clusters were simplified through the loss of the first consonant. The double consonants [gn-], [kn-], and [wr-] became [n-], [n-], and [r-] in that order.

	E. Modern English	*Modern English*
ganwen	[gnawaən]	[nɔ:]
knight	[knixt]	[nayt]
writen	[wri : tən]	[rayt]

Finally the clusters [-mb] and [-ŋg] become [-m] and [ŋ] respectively:

domb	[dumb]	[dəm]
thing	[Øiŋg]	[Øiŋ]

2. The Vowels:

In tracing the development of vowels from Middle English to Modern English, we have to bear these considerations in mind:

1- Short vowels did not change much ever since the Old English period. The following five short vowels were a part of Old English phonology in the same way that they form the majority of short vowels that make up any dialect of present - day English.

Vowel	Old English	Middle English	Modern English
æ	catte [kætte]	catte [kattə]	cat [kæt]
e	bedd [bedd]	bed [bedd]	bed [bed]
i	scip [šip]	schip [šip]	ship [šip]
o	folc [fɔlk]	folk [fɔlk]	folk [fowk]
u	full [full]	full [full]	full [ful]

It will be noticed that the vowel [æ] underwent some change in the Middle English period. It became [a] during the Middle English period (in Chaucer's writings), and was changed again to [æ] in Modern English. The Old English [ɔ] did not change in Middle English, but in Modern English it changed to the diphthong [ow].

2- Long vowels changed from Old English to Middle English; but the greatest change suffered by long vowels occurred in the period between Middle and Early Modern English. This accounts for the fact that Shakespear's pronunciation (if interpreted correctly) would sound much nearer to present - day English than the sounds of Chaucer's poetry or prose. This great change in the long vowels of English has been called by Jespersen "The Great Vowel Shift"; and this great change is supposed to have been completed by the beginning of the sixteenth century.

This vowel change has been reflected even in the names given to the vowels of the English alphabet. The first letter of the alphabet in English (written a) is called [ey], while it is called [a] in most European languges. The fifth letter of the alphabet is called [iy] (written e) instead of [ey] or [e:] as in most West

European languages. Finally, the ninth letter i (pronounced [i:] in most languages in Western Europe, is called an [ay] in English.

If we take Chaucer's writings as representative of Middle English, Shakespeare's works may also be taken as illustrative of Early Modern English.

The Great Vowel Shift:

What happened during the Great Vowel Shift may be described in terms of the two processes of Raising and Diphthongization. A long vowel was raised, and if it could not be raised it was diphthongized. These two processes will be dealt with first in the back vowels, then in the front vowels, and finally in a and æ:

1- The Back Vowels:

The low back vowel [ɔ̄] was raised to [ō], the mid back vowel, and the mid back was raised to the high back vowel [ū].

In most cases, the high back vowel was diphthongized: [ū] became [aw]. Sometimes [aw] was again simplified and became [ɔ] .

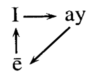
This may be illustrated by the following diagram:

ū
aw ō ↑
ɔ̄ ↑

Middle English sound	*Chaucer*	*Shakespeare*	*Now*
ɔ̄ in "goat"	[gɔ̄ta]	[gōt]	[gowt]
ō in "food"	[fōdə]	[fud]	[fuwd]
ū in "house"	[hūs]	[haws]	[haws]
aw in "fought".	[fawxt]	[fɔ̄t]	[fɔ̄t] or [fɔt]

2- The Front Vowels:

The change in the back vowels seems to have proceeded more regularly than it occurred with the front vowels. Here we have one vowel raised and the other diphthongized; and the simplification of the diphthong did not always take place.



Middle English sound	*Chaucer*	*Shakespeare*	*Now*
ē in "sweet"	[swētə]	[swīt]	[swiyt]
ī in "five"	[fīf]	[fayv]	[fayv]
æy in "sail"	[sæyl]	[seīl]	[seyl]

The mid front vowel [ē] was raised to [ī] before Shakespeare's time. The high front [ī] was diphthongized to become [ay]. The Middle English diphthong [æy], which may have alternated with [ay], was simplified to a "pure" long [ē], which later became [ey].

3. The Vowels ā and ǣ:

The Middle English vowel [ā] sometimes developed into [ē] in Early Modern English, and then to [ey]:

ā in "name" [nāmə] [nēm] [neym]

The Middle English vowel [ǣ] also developed first into [ē] before it became [ī], and then [iy]:

ǣ in "deed"	[dǣd]	[dēd]	[dīd]	[diyd]

But both [ā] and [ǣ] have had sometimes similar courses of development, and each changed to [ea].

ā in "spare"	[sparə]	[speə(r)]
ǣ in "bear"	[bǣrə]	[be ə (r)]

Still sometimes [ǣ] has changed into [e]; and [ā] into [e:] or [e]

ǣ in "death"	[dǣØ]	[deØ]
ā in "small"	[smālə]	[smawl] [smɔl]

Unstressed Vowels:

The final unstressed - e [-ə] was lost in words like:

E. Middle English	***Modern English***
sune [sunə]	son [sən]
wente [wentə]	went [went]

The unsressed -e- in - es of plural nouns, and in -ed of past verbs was lost in most cases:

	things	[θoŋgəs]	things	[Øiŋz]
	bokes	[bo ; kəs]	books	[buks]
but	classes	[kla: səs]	classes	[kla: siz]
	loved	[luvəd]	loved	[ləvd]
	loked	[lo:kəd]	looked	[lukt]
But	wedded	[weddəd]	wedded	[wedid]

Finally, some vowels were stressed in Middle English, but have lost their stress ever since; many of these words came from French:

corage	[kura : dž̌ə]	courage	[kəridž̌]
kingdom	[hiŋgdo: m]	kingdom	[hiŋdəm]
welcome	[welkumə]	welecme	[welk əm]

3. Phonetic Notation:

Following are the first 18 lines of Hamlet's soliloquy, with a phonetic notation representing what is understood by historians of English to have been the pronunciation of English in Shakespear's days. The line numbers follow the Globe and Cambridge editions.

I. ii. 129 - 143:

Oh that this too too solid flesh, would melt

O: đæt đis tu: tu: sɔlid flěs wu: ld melt

Thaw, and ,resolve itselfe into a Dew:

θɔ ænd rizɔlv itself intu:ə dyu:

or that the everlasting had not fixt

ɔ r đæt di evərlæstiŋ hæd nɔt fikst

His Cannon gainst Selfe-slaughter. O God, O God!

hiz kænən gæynst self slɔ:tr o; gɔd o : gɔd

How weary, stale, flat, and unprofitable

hæw we: ri stæ: I flæt ənd unprɔ fitæbl

Seemes to me all the uses of this world?

si: mz təmi :ɔ : l đəyu : siz əv đ is world

Fie on't2 Oh fie,fie, tis an unweeded Garden

Fæɔnt o: fæy fæy tizən unwi:did gærdn

That grows to Seed: Things rank and grosse in Nature

đæt gro:z təsi:d θinηz ræηkənd gro:s in ne:tjər

Possesse it meerely. That it should come to this:

Pəzes it mi:rli đ æt it šu:ld Kum tə đis.

But two months dead: Nay, not so much; not two,

but tu: munθs ded næy nɔt so: mutš nɔt tu:

So excellent a king, that was to this

so: eksəlent a kiη đət wæz tɔ đis

Hiperion to a Satyre so loving to my Mother

hæype:ry ən tu:ə sætir so: luviη tə mæy muđər

That he might not beteeme the windes of heaven

đæt hi: mæyt nət biti:m đə windz əv hevn

Visit her face too roughly. Heaven and Earth

Vizit ər fe:s tu: rufli hevn and erθ

Must I remember : why she would hang on him

must æy rimembr hwæy ši: wu:ld hæη ən im

As if encrease of Appetite had growne

əz if inkre:s ɔv æpətæyt had gro:n

By what if fed on; and yet within a month?

bæy hwæt it fed ən ənd yet wiđin əmonθ

Let me not thinke on't: Frailty, the name is woman.

Let mi:nɔt θinkɔnt fræylti đæy ne:m iz wumən

The seventeenth and eighteenth centuries saw a few vowel changes, which may be summarized as follows:

1. The O.E. vowel [ǣ] in the words cleene [Klǣne] "clean" and see [sǣ], and similar words, became [ē] in Middle English. Later the vowel [ē] became [i:] during the seventeenth or the eighteenth century.

So, While the word cleene was pronounced [klǣne] in Chaucer's time, it came to be pronounced [klēn] in Shakespeare's days. Now it is pronounced [kliyn]. This may be represented as follows

O. E	***Chaucer***	***Shakespeare***	***Present day***
Clǣne	cleene	clene	clean
[klǣne]	[klǣnə]	[klēn]	[Kliyn]
sǣ	see	sea	sea
[sǣ]	[sæ]	[sē]	[siy]

2. About the same time the vowel [u] became[a] in words like blood. It was pronounced [blōd] in Middle English, then it became [blūd]. In shakespeare's time it was [blud]; and it was probably during the second half of the eighteenth century that it was pronounced [blə d]. It has continued to be pronounced in this way until the present day among educated native speakers of English.

3. The eighteenth century also saw the diphthongization of long vowels:

		Early Modern	*Modern*
[ū]	[uw]	goose [gūs]	[guws]
[ō]	[ow]	stone [stōn]	[stown]
[ē]	[ey]	name [nēm]	[neym]
[ī]	[iy]	deed [dīd]	[diyd]

It is an accepted fact among historians of English that Old and Middle English had long vowels that were "pure" and did not have any of the two glides [y] or [w] as a second element. Now most American linguists agree that there are no "pure" long vowels in Modern Standard English, and that such vowels actually have as a second element a glide: either [y] or [w].

III. The Morphology and Syntax:

There are no radical differences between the morphology and syntax of Middle English as compared with those of the Early Modern English period. The great grammatical changes which simplified the inflections of Old English had already taken place. Shakespeare's language, as well as that of the Authorized Version of the Bible (1611), does not differ from Modern English in the same way that Chaucer's language does. Nor does Shakespeare's language differ much from that of Chaucer in so far as morphology and syntax are concerned, in spite of the many phonological differences already referred to in the preceding section of this chapter.

1. Nouns:

In early Modern English nouns were inflected for the genitive and for the plural. There was the suffix - s for the genitive

singular and for the plural. Nouns with a final voiced consonant (except [z],[ž], and [dž]) had [-z] as the genitive singular suffix and the plural suffix.

	Middle English	***Early Modern English***
Sing.	sone [sunə]	son [sən]
Sing Gen.	sons [sunə s]	son's [sənz]
Pl.	sones [sunə s]	sons [sənz]

Nouns with a voiceless final consonant (except [s], [š], and [tš]) had [-s] as a suffix for the genitive singular and the plural:

Sing.	book [bo : k]	book [buk]
Sing Gen.	bookes [bo : kəs]	book's [buks]
Pl.	bookes [bo : kəs]	books [buks]

Other nouns (with the final consonants [s], [z], [š], [ž], [tš], and [dž]) had [-əz] or [-iz] as the suffix for the genitive singular and the plural.

Sing.	bush [buš]	bush [buš]
Sing Gen.	bushes [bušəs]	bush's [bušiz]
Pl.	bushes [bušəs]	bushes [bušiz]

Nouns like wife and life had the genitive singular the same as the other singular forms and distinct from the plural, in so far as the final consonant of the word is concerned:

	Middle English	***Early Modern English***
Sing.	wif [wi : f]	wife [wayf]
Sing Gen.	wives [wi : vəs]	wive's [wayvz]
Pl.	wives [wi : vəs]	wives [wayvz]

Nouns like man, foot, and goose had the plural with a different vowel from that of the singular form:

Sing.	man [man]	man [mæn]
Sing Gen.	mennes [mannəs]	man's [mænz]
Pl.	men [men]	men [men]
Gen.	mennes [mennəs]	men's [menz]

Some nouns had the plural in [- ən]. Such forms have been reduced to three in present-day English; but even in Shakespeares time they were at least double that number. The forms eyen (eyes), shoon (shoes), and kine (cows) were used by Shakespeare side by side with the more usual forms. Today, we have oxen, children, and brethren.

In Modern English the genitive singular has the apostrophe and (s) as a writing symbol for [-s, -z, - əz]. This -s originally comes from Old English his, marking the genitive.

The Early Modern English period also saw the frequent use of the group possessive (= or the periphrastic genitive) as may be seen from such constructions:

The King of England's niece.

The Chief actor in the play's illness.

It was commoner before that time to see the first phrase in a different shape:

"The king's niece of England"

Adjectives:

Comparative adjectives in Early Modern English had forms that had different vowels from the first degree adjectives: lenger (long), and strenger (strong).

Shakespeare's language had some comparative and superlative forms of adjectives which are no longer used today: e.g. honester (= more honest) and violentest (= most violent).

Double comparatives and double superlatives are also found in Shakespeare's words:

more larger	= larger
most boldest	= boldest
most unkindest	= most unkind

Pronouns:

The Early Modern English period saw the disappearance of these forms of the second person singular thou, thy, and thee during the sixteenth century; and the originally nominative plural form ye disappeared in the seventeenth century.

First Person:

The development of the vowels of the First Person from Middle English proceeded according to the same changes that occurred to long vowels: [i :] became [ay].

	Middle English	***Early Modern English***
Sing.Nom.	I [i :]	I [ay]
Gen.	my [mi :]	my [may]
	myn [mi : n]	mine [mayn]
Obj.	me [me :]	me [me:]
Pl. Nom.	we [we :]	wi [wi :]
Gen.	oure [u : rə]	our [awə (r)] or
	or our [u : r]	[aə (r)]

Second Person:

In the thirteenth century the singular forms thou, thee were used usually for addressing people of lower rank, and the plural forms ye, your and you were for superiors. The plural form ye was originally the nominative case, and you the accusative or the objective.

		M.E.	***E.Mn.E.***	***Mn. E.***
	Now	thou [øu:]	[đaw], [yi:]	
			[yu:]	[yuw]
	Gen.	thyn [øi:n]	[đay], [đayn]	
		thyn [øi:n]	[yu:r]	[yu ə (r)]
	obj.	[øɔ:]	[đi:], [yu:]	[yuw]
Pl.		***M.E.***	***E. Mn. E.***	***Mn. E.***
	Nom.	ye [ye:]	[yi:], [yu:]	[yuw]
		your [yu:r]	[yu:r]	[yuə(r)] or
	Gen.			[y ɔa]
	Obj.	you [yu:]	[yu:]	[yuw]

Third Person:

The masculine form of the Third person singular was he [he :] in Middle English, and the feminine form was she [še :]. The first form became [hiy], and the second [šiy] in Modern English. The most important new development in the neuter form of the Third person singular was the appearance of <u>its</u> during the early Modern English period. Before the introduction of <u>its</u>, the form <u>his</u> was sometimes used instead, Thus Portia in "The Merchant of Venice" says "How far that little candle throws <u>his</u> beams", instead of the modern from <u>its</u>.

Sometimes Shakespeare used it (and not his) instead of its. Thus, when Horatio describes the ghost in "Hamlet", he says, "It lifted up it head".

The first recorded instance of the use of its is dated 1597. The development of Third Person Singular (neuter) may be shown as follows:

	MiddleEnglish	***Modern English***
Nom.	hit [hit]	[it]
	it [it]	
Gen.	his [his]	[hit], [it], [hiz], [its]

The pronoun its was spelled with an apostrophe (it's) until about the beginning of the nineteenth century.

The Pronoun "Who":

In Early Middle English dæt (that) was used as a relative pronoun. In the sixteenth century which was also used as a relative pronoun; sometimes where we would use who in present-day English. This use survives in "Our Father which art in heaven". This use of who as a relative pronoun has not been discovered before the sixteenth century. In Chaucer whos (whose) and whom were used as relative pronouns (but not who as a relative pronoun).

Verbs:

The third person singular in the southern parts of England had the suffix-eth all through the Middle English period. In the fifteenth century, verbs with the suffix-s began to appear. In the "Trial Scene" in "The Merchant of Venice", Portia says of mercy:

It blesseth him that gives and him that takes...

At the end of the sixteenth century, the suffix-s was sometimes used with the third person plural. In "The Merchant of Venice", again we find:

"Whose own hard dealings teaches them suspect the deeds of others".

The Old English verbs are divided into "strong" and "weak" verbs. During the Middle English period many strong verbs became weak. In Shakespeare's writings we find that these verbs are “weak” : crow - crowed, crowd - crowded, dread - dreaded, sprout - sprouted, and wade - waded.

The verbs in the Bible which were sometimes weak and sometimes strong are:

sow - sowed (and sew), gnaw - gnawed (and gnew), and help - helped (and holp)

These "weak" forms were also common in the seventeenth century: blowed (instead of blew), growed (instead of grew), shined (instead of shone), shrinked (instead of shrank), and swinged (instead of swang).

These verbs had different past tenses from the forms of the past in Modern English:

E.Mn.E. brake spake drave tare bare bote bernt sware.

Mn. En. broke spoke drove tore bore bit burnt swore.

The development of the two verbs "shall" and "will" from Middle English to Modern English is given below:

	MiddleEnglish	*Modern English*
Pres. Iad. Sing	1 shal [šal]	[šæl]
	2 shalt [šalt]	[šæl]
	3 shal [šal]	[šæl]
PI.	shulle (n) [šullan]	[šæl]
	shul [šul], shal [šal]	[šæl]
Past. Iad. Sing	1 sholde [šo : ldə]	[šud]
	2 sholdest [šo : ldeəst]	[šud]
	3 sholde [šo : ldə]	[šud]
PI.	sholde (n) [šo : ldən]	[šud]

	MiddleEnglish	*Modern English*
Pres. Iad. Sing	1 wil [wil] wol [wul]	[wil]
	2 wilt [wilt] wolt [wult]	[wil]
	3 wil [wil] wol [wul]	[wil]
PI.	wille (n) [willan] will	[wil]
	wol [wul] [wil]	
Past. Ind. Sing	1 wolde [wo : ldə]	[wud]
	2 woldest [wo : ldəst]	[wud]
	3 wolde [wo : ldə]	[wud]
PI.	wolde (n) [wo : ldən]	[wud]

Finally, there are four syntactic differences between Early Modern English and English of the present-day:

1. The absence of the auxiliary (or the helping verb) in such constructions : "Goes the King hence today?" (Macbeth). Modern English : "Does the King go hence today?"

2. The occurrence of the Impersonal construction like:

   "It dislikes me" instead of

   "I dislike"

3. The scarcity of the Progressive forms of the verb, or the forms with the suffix-ing:

   Polonius asks: "What do you read, my Lord?" instead of :

   "What are you reading, my Lord?"

4. The development of the auxiliaries, most of which were used in Old English as full verbs: will, shall, can, could, may, and ought.

Chapter 9
American English

1. American English and British English:

American English and British English may be generally considered to comprise the two main branches of contemporary English. They are not identical but differ from each other for the following reasons:

(a) In any language there are forces making for homogeneity, but geographical extension and people living in places far from each other lead to diversity. Take any couple with as nearly as possible identical speech, isolate them from each other and the speech of their descendants will invariably both alter and diverge increasingly from generation to generation. Language tends to change and it tends to change differently in different places. These are the two iron laws in the life of language generally.

(b) The character of the population differs, and does so even apart from the very great non-British element in the American population; the early English emigrants to America were not a cross-section of the English population of the 17 th Century, socially, educationally, or geographically.

(c) The natural environment and hence the natural conditions of life in England and in America were and are different.

(d) The artificial environment-social, educational, economic, political-was and is different.

2. Points and examples of differences:

American English and British English differ from each other in pronunciation, idiom, vocabulary and spelling:

(a) Pronunciation:

The low front vowel / æ / occurs in American English in some words where British English has the low central vowel /a/, e.g.

	American	***British***
Glass	/glæs/	/glas/
Half	/hæf/	/haf/
path	/pæø/	/paø/

Some words which have the vowel /i/ in American English occur in British English with /ay/:

Fertile	/fertil/	/fartayl/
Missile	/misəl/	/misayl/

However, the reverse occurs in such words as antisemitic:

/aentaysemitik/ /aentisemitik/

In British English initial /r-/, as in red, is a voiced alveolar fricative, medial /-r-/, as in very is a flap produced by one tap of the tip of the tongue against the alveolar ridge; but American /r/ is a retroflex semi-vowel, and not a fricative or a flap.

When /r/ is in final position, or post voalic, it is usually not pronounced by speakers of British English and by speakers of English in the Eastern parts of the United States:

Part /pa : t/ partner /pa : tnə/

Words which have two or more syllables following the primary stress / ´ / usually have tertiary stress / ` / in American English, but weak stress in British English, e.g.:

dictionary /díkšənèri/ - / díkšənri/

(four syllables) (three syllables)

library /líbrèri/ - /láybeəri/

secondary /sékendèri/ - /sékənadri/

Some words which have /uw/ in American English occur in British English with /yuw/, e.g.:

student /stuwdənt/ - /styudənt/

new /nuw/ - /nyuw/

(b) Idioms:

A striking example of the difference in idioms between American English and British English is the British subtle but effortless distinctions between shall and will and should and would compared to the American tendency to use the one in the place of the other. An American generally uses "I will", for the future tense, whereas, speakers of standard English use "I shall" for the future, and "I will" for emphasis.

Most other differences in idioms appear mainly in familiar conversation, and hence are seldom exemplified in writing except in such contexts as the dialogue of novels and plays, though now and then they arise in colloquies between Englishmen and Americans brought face to face yet such

differences in idiom never provoke misunderstanding and seldom even much notice. Following are a few exmples:

American	*British*
Ididn't ask; should I have?	Ididn't ask; should I have done?
a week from Tuesday.	a Tuesday week.
His membership in the scoiety.	His membership of the scoiety.
He doesn't have a telephone	He is not on a telephone

(c) Vocabulary:

Differences in vocabulary are numerous, and Americanisms fall into two groups:

a) Americanisms peculiar to America, constantly growing in number and making their way into the vocabulary of English, e.g. : okay, cafeteria, movies and hotdogs.

b) Americanisms derived from new applications and combinations of old words which are either native to English or very ancient borrowings. This group of words is smaller than one is likely to think; for apparent instances of American coinages are really American survivals -words or meanings once used everywhere but later dropped in England and continued in America. The American use of "clerk" for what an Englishman usually calls "a shop assistant" exemplifies this instance. In American English clerk is a shop-assistant, (e.g. : a shoe-clerk sells, fits and receives money). In British English a clerk is a person employed to keep accounts; a person who works in an office.

The many striking peculiarities of the American vocabulary are explicable as results of the ways in which life in America

differs from life in England. The first English settlers' adaptation of their language to the new surroundings is reflected in American meanings of corn, robin, and creek.

New political institutions have produced new political terms, e.g.:

American	*British*
Congress	Parliament
Congressmen	M.P.'s
Secretary of State	Foreign Secretary

The terms "barrister" (a person entitled to practise as advocate in superior courts), and solicitor (a member of the branch of the legal profession chiefly concerned with advising clients and preparing their cases), are absent from the American legal language, lawyer and attorney are the only expressions in use.

In the more common aspects of daily life, the differences are innumerable. Following are a few examples:

American	*British*
Fall	Autumn
Mail box	Pillar box (letter box)
Sidewalk	Pavement
Delivery	Post
Radio	Wireless
Movies	Cinema, pictures
Baggage-car	Luggage-van
ticket-office	Booking - office

(d) Spelling:

Spellings peculiar to America or at any rate first commonly used there are, for the most part, results of the efforts of Noah

Webster (1758 - 1843) who, through his dictionaries and spelling-books has had, probably, more influence on the spelling of English in America than any other single person. What is really most remarkable about Webster is this attempt to simplify and "phoneticize" English spelling. In 1789, in Dissertations on the English language, Webster proposed a thoroughgoing and more or less consistent reform involving spellings as giv, brest, speek, proov, and karakter. Webster's mark on the American spelling of today is best seen in:

- er for - re as in center (centre);

- or for our as in color (colour);

favor (favour), and honor (honour);

and other spellings such as program for programme and tire and thru for tyre and through, respectively.

3. The Settlement history of America:

It is possible to divide the settlement history of America into three periods:

a- From 1607 to 1790 the date of the first census which stated that four million people lived in the "colonial" area which mainly extended along the Atlantic-sea coast. Ninety per cent of these had come from the British Isles.

b- From 1790 to 1860. During this period settlement shifted from primarily English to one which had non-English group elements in it. In 1848 the potatoe crop failed in Ireland and as a result many Irish people moved to America. As a result of an abortive attemp to convert Germany to some kind of democracy,

many Germans moved to America. By 1860 the second tier of states west of the Missisippi were founded and the number of inhabitants reached 41 million.

c- From 1860 to the present time, different kinds of migrations have taken place, the main ones coming from South and South - East Europe.

4. The Language of the Early Settlers:

Since the early settlers spoke and wrote the English language as it was currently used in England in the 17^{th} Century, the linguistic processes which operated to produce the differences between American and British English which exist today must either have taken place in American English after the early settlers settled in America or have occurred in British English after the emigrants had left their homeland.

The early settlers spoke Elizabethan English which naturally sounded somewhat different from Modern English. For example, many words which are pronounced with the vowel sound /iy/ as in meat, had at the time of the earliest settlement in America, the quality of the present-day English /ey/as in mate.

Furthermore, the stress patterns of Shakespeare's English were not absolutely identical with those of Modern English. For example, there is evidence that in such a tri-syllabic word as "characher'd" the stress had not yet shifted to the first syllable. In many two-syllable words which now stress the first, at that time had the stress on the second; many derivatives in - able had a stress, at least secondary in value, on the suffix.

Although Elizabethan English had in general developed most of the inflections which are used in present-day English - the noun plurals, the object from them in the plural pronoun, the past tense and past participle forms of the weak verb - a few interesting earlier features still remained. For example, there existed the double forms of the pronoun of address: thou and ye or you.

It is also known that at that time spelling was not yet standardized and the process of standard codification took place after the two speech areas, England and America, were already separated. It is, therefore, safe to deduce that it is more than possible that the processes of standardizing the spelling system might not work out in the same way in both places.

Since the earliest settlers used Elizabethan English which differs in many respects from present-day English, it is easy to find as acceptable explanation of the beginning of the divergence in the two main streams of the English language. It remains to be seen how, and through what means, this divergence developed thoughout the course of the intervening centuries. The earliest settlers encountered plants and animals which were new to them. The land was inhabited by tribes of indigenous people who spoke strange languages, wore strange clothes and had strange customs. Even the landscape was quite different from the nearly tailored English countryside. Consequently names had to be provided for all these aspects of their new life.

5- The American - Indian Element:

The most important source of the new names needed had to be the languages of the native inhabitants of the country. It is

estimated that about million Indians lived in what is called now the United States and they spoke something like 350 languages belonging to some twenty-five families. Among the principal families of Indian languages were the Algonquian, the Iraquoian, the Muskoghian, and the Uto-Astecan, and each with its own subdivisions. Individual languages of these families furnished most of the American - Indian words which were borrowed by the ealiest settlers. Following is a sample list of American-Indian loan words:

a) Names of trees, plants and fruits:

tamarack (a tree like fir)

squash (a fruit used as a vegetable)

pecan (thin - sell nut)

hickory (a preparation of pounded kernels)

b) Names of foods:

pemmican (grease-oil).

pone (a maize - cake)

hominy (a food prepared by removing the hulls from kernels of maize).

c) Names of animals:

cayuse (pony)

moose (a deer of immense size)

muskart (a water rat)

woodchuck (fisher - weasel)

racoon (an animal like a small bear)

d) Amerindian Culture:

maniton (a spirit)

powwow (a prophet)

totem (tribal mark or badge)

mackinaw (a big turtle)

moccasin (a type of shoes)

wampum (shell - currency)

hogan (dwelling built of earth)

tepee (a lodge : conical in shape)

wigwam (a house)

Loan - words from the American - Indian languages underwent considerable changes in the borrowing process. Changes were generally in the direction of simplification and shortening. For example, the word squash appears to have been shortened through a phonetic process, from askutasquash, the racoon from raughroughcums, and the word hickory from pawcohiccorn.

The forms of some American - Indian (Amerindian) loan words were changed not as a result of a phonetic process but of a psychological process. This is peculiarly well illustrated by the word woodchunk which seems to have had its origin in a word appearing variously as wuchak, otchak, odjig, meaning "fisher" or "weasel". It was, at any rate, the name of an animal, which bore some association with the words, and presumably to give a semblance of reason to this strange combination of sounds, the

English-speaking-settlers converted the first syllable into wood. This type of modification arising from a popular or unlearned effort to resolve a strange or unusual word into understandable elements, is called "folk or popular etymology".

Besides the various Amerindian influences, American English reflects the other non-English cultures which the settlers met in their conquest of the Continent and which were brought along with emigrants who came later from various parts of Europe and other continents. These include the French, Spanish, Dutch, German, Swedish, Italian, Chinese and African cultures.

6. The French Elements:

The French borrowings include words pertaining to exploration, travel and certain features of landscape, food, coinage, furniture and building:

a) Exploration and travel:

bateau

carry-all

voyageur

portage

b) Features of landscape:

chutte

crevasse

levée

prairie

rapids

c) food:

brioche

praline

sazarac

chowder

d) Coinage:

cent

dime

mill

e) furniture and building:

bureau

depot

shanty

In the course of the borrowing process, the French words were modified though not drastically distorted in pronunciation and form as were the American-Indian words. The most outstanding modification is to stress the first syllable, or at any rate to shift the stress found, as evidenced in búreau (and ont buréau), and dépot (and not depót). The process of "folk - etymology" was also here at work, and its outstanding example is the term carryall from the Fench word carriole.

7. The Spanish Element:

As the English - speaking settlers moved southward toward the Gulf of Mexico and the Pacific, they encountered Spanish

colonization and culture. Following are examples of Spanish words still common in American English. They are classified according to the aspects of life and fields of activity they represent:

a) Plants and animals:

alfalfa

mosquito

armadillo

barracuda

cockroach

b) Ranch life:

ranch

rodeo

lasso

stampede

d) Food and drink:

tequila

tortila

tomato

barbecue

chocolate

e) Building:

cafeteria

patio

plaza

f) Clothing:

serape

sombrero

poncho

g) Legal and Penal:

calaboose

desoerado

vigilantes

h) Miscellaneous:

fiesta

pronto

rumba

tornado

savvy (v.)

vamoose (v.)

canyon

cannibal

As is generally true with borrowings from any of the Romance languages, English tends to shift the stress forward as, for example, in cányon from canón, and cánibal from cabibál.

Some borrowings from Spanish were modified through the process of folk-etymology. The most outstanding example is the words cockroach from Spanish word cucaracha.

8. The Dutch Element:

Of all the languages which have made a significant contribution to American English vocabulary, Dutch has been the most influential, since borrowings from Dutch are much more in general use than Spanish or French loan words.

Following is a sample list of the words in American English which are of Dutch origin or show other evidences of Dutch influence:

a) Food:

cole slaw

cookie

pit

Waffle

b) Farms and building:

stoop (proch)

hay barrack

c) Transportation:

caboose (cook room on ship)

sleigh

span (of horses)

d) Social classification:

boss

patroon

Yankee

e) Miscellaneous:

boodle

dope

dumb (stupid)

Santa Claus

spook (a ghost)

Since Dutch is more closely related to English than any of the other languages which have had a significant contribution to American vocabulary, there are fewer changes in form and pronunciation in the Dutch borrowings than in these borrowings from other languages. "Santa Claus", developed from the Dutch sinterklass, a somewhat collapsed form of Sant Nikolaas. However, since American English of the late 18th Century did not have the /a/ vowel of father, the /o/ vowel, as in the word long, developed as the closest approximation. This is also true of boss from Dutch baas.

9. The German Element:

The German migrations to America consist of three or four major waves that took place between 1683 and early 20th Century. The Germans constitute the largest body of non-English speaking stock in the United States.

Following is a sample - list of words in American English which are of German origin or show some aspects of German influence:

beer soup

frankfurter

hamburger

liverwurst

noddle

pretzel

sauerkraut

semester

Christmas tree

bum

loafer

ouch

phooey

American English also has a number of compounds which are translations from German, e.g.:

rainworm	from Regenwurm
cookbook	from kochbuch
back country	from Hinterland

10- Other Elements:

Other immigrant stocks have also enriched American English but not in such quantity. From the various African languages spoken by Negroes come such terms as:

gumbo

goober

buckra

voodoo

hoador

In addition, languages as widely varied as Swedish, Italian and Chinese have all made some contributions to the American vocabulary. From Swedish came the words:

skijor

smogasbord

From Italian came:

spaghetti

ravioli

minestrone

pizza

From Chinese came:

chew

chospsuey

fanter

joss

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